

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### NEPOTISM IN THE SCHOOLS

The *Courier-Journal* of Louisville, Kentucky, has given the report of an investigation of bribery and favor in appointments to teaching positions within the state. The report is made by Dean Maurice F. Seay, of Union College at Barbourville. The evidence discloses a condition so prejudicial to the best interests of the schools and to the development of a profession of education that it seems desirable to quote the report in full, inclusive of the accompanying tables.

The practices of nepotism, favoritism, and bargaining in the public-school system of Kentucky are thought to be very serious by many of our educational leaders. However, there has been presented very little factual material that reveals the true situation. Obviously, such material is very difficult to obtain.

The writer has attempted to determine something definite about these practices. A questionnaire was submitted during April, 1933, to the students of three colleges who had taught during 1932-33 and who had secured a position or the promise of one for 1933-34. The three institutions—a junior college, a four-year liberal-arts college, and a state teachers' college—are located so as to serve logically the mountain section of eastern Kentucky. In submitting the questionnaire the following statement was made:

"This is a confidential questionnaire. There is no way to identify a paper with the person filling it out. You are urged to answer each question, but, if you do not feel free to do so, omit any or all of them. You need not write in your usual

handwriting but may letter in your replies if you desire. We have absolutely no desire to know who fills out these questionnaires. We are attempting to find the true situation in order to aid education, particularly the teachers. If you do not understand a question, ask for an explanation. The questionnaires when completed are to be placed upon the platform face down. They will be mixed up before they are taken away, and they will be kept as confidential material. Any report that is made will be guarded so as not to reflect upon your college or its students."

TABLE I

PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS WHO BARGAINED FOR THEIR POSITIONS OR HAD SOME RELATIVE OFFICIALLY CONNECTED WITH THE SCHOOL

College and Year	PERCENTAGES WHO—				
	Paid Money	Paid Something Other than Money	Agreed To Board at a Specific Place	Had a Relative Connected with the School	Either Bargained or Had a Relative Connected with the School
Junior college:					
1932-33.....	7.5	3.8	3.0	40.6	54.5
1933-34.....	8.3	1.8	2.4	31.6	44.1
Liberal-arts college:					
1932-33.....	5.1	0.0	6.1	29.2	40.3
1933-34.....	3.5	2.1	2.1	40.0	47.6
State teachers' college:					
1932-33.....	2.6	0.0	2.1	19.3	24.0
1933-34.....	1.4	0.3	1.6	26.0	29.3
Three colleges combined:					
1932-33.....	4.1	0.8	2.9	25.4	33.2
1933-34.....	3.5	1.0	1.8	30.3	36.6

The questionnaires were filled out by 614 students who taught in county school systems during 1932-33 and by 683 students who had a position or the promise of one in county school systems for 1933-34. Since the number of those from other types of districts who replied were small, no tabulations were made except for teachers in county school systems.

Data that concern the answers to the following questions are given in Table I (similar questions were asked with reference to 1933-34):

"Did you, or someone for you, pay to anyone connected with the school system any money for your position this past school year? (Answer 'yes' or 'no.')

"Did you, or someone for you, pay to anyone connected with the school system anything other than money for your position this past school year? (Answer 'yes' or 'no.')

"In securing your last position, was it a part of the agreement for you to board and room at a specific place?"

"Do you have a relative who is connected in any official way with the school system in which you taught this past year?"

In tabulating the replies, when more than one affirmative answer was given by the same student, only the first "yes" was considered. This procedure prevented duplication in the computations.

No claim is made that the percentages of Table I represent the exact situation for these teachers. Undoubtedly, the percentages are low. However, the writer

TABLE II

PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS GROUPED ACCORDING TO TRAINING WHO BARGAINED FOR THEIR POSITION OR WHO HAD SOME RELATIVE OFFICIALLY CONNECTED WITH THE SCHOOL

Group and Year	PERCENTAGES WHO—				
	Paid Money	Paid Something Other than Money	Agreed To Board at a Specific Place	Had a Relative Connected with the School	Either Bargained or Had a Relative Connected with the School
Group I (0-31 hours):					
1932-33.....	5.7	0.8	2.3	29.9	38.5
1933-34.....	4.3	1.4	0.0	31.4	37.1
Group II (32-63 hours):					
1932-33.....	3.5	0.9	4.0	23.5	31.9
1933-34.....	3.6	0.5	2.2	39.4	45.7
Group III (64 or more hours):					
1932-33.....	1.4	0.0	3.2	19.2	23.8
1933-34.....	3.1	1.5	1.5	17.1	23.2

does maintain that the true percentages are at least as high as those given in the table. It will be observed that of the entire group of teachers for both years slightly more than one-third state that they secured their position by bargaining or that they had a relative who was officially connected with the school system. The percentages are highest for the students of the junior college, which serves almost entirely mountain counties. The percentages are least for the state teachers' college, which enrolls a large percentage of its students from territory outside of the mountains. Thus the data, when the constituencies of the colleges are considered, indicate that the practices of buying positions and of nepotism are more serious in the mountain section. This conclusion agrees with general opinion.

The teachers were asked to state the number of semester hours that they had

earned before they taught their last school and the number that they expected to have earned when they begin teaching this year. From these replies it was possible to group the teachers according to the amount of training. The percentages of teachers in each of three groups who state that they bargained for their positions or who had a relative officially connected with the school system are given in Table II.

An examination of Table II shows that the practices of bargaining for positions and of nepotism are not so serious with the better-trained teachers. The

TABLE III  
CLASSIFICATION OF RELATIVES OFFICIALLY CONNECTED WITH THE SCHOOL SYSTEMS

RELATIVE	PERCENTAGE	
	1932-33	1933-34
Cousin.....	26.1	25.8
Father.....	24.2	16.0
Uncle.....	19.0	28.1
Brother.....	9.0	9.2
Mother.....	5.2	5.1
Brother-in-law.....	4.6	6.0
Aunt.....	2.6	3.2
Grandfather.....	2.6	1.0
Husband.....	2.0	.9
Sister.....	2.0	1.4
Father-in-law.....	1.3	1.4
Mother-in-law.....	.7	.5
Wife.....	.7	.0
Grandmother.....	.0	.5
Sister-in-law.....	.0	.5

percentages for teachers who had sixty-four or more semester hours, or the equivalent to two years of college work or more, are generally lower than for either of the other groups who have less training.

The data that have been presented reveal a serious situation. However, some say that nepotism is not really serious because the people of many communities, when distant relatives are considered, are nearly all of some relation to each other. In an attempt to determine the true situation, the students were asked in the questionnaire to state what relation the official was to them. From the replies the data of Table III have been computed.

A study of the data of Table III shows that in general the relation of the school officials to the teachers is close with the possible exception of "cousin." However, only approximately one-fourth of the relatives fall in this classification. Thus the data of Table III show that the nepotism practiced involved "close kin."

The writer has purposefully refrained from elaborate explanation and inter-



pretations of the data presented in this article. The conclusions seem obvious. Other studies for other representative institutions in Kentucky would undoubtedly present similar results. These facts, however, present a challenge to the teaching profession, to the legislators, and to the citizens of our state. What are we going to do about it?

That practices of the kind uncovered in Dean Seay's investigation militate against the professionalization of teaching can be inferred from certain facts published in the recent *Report of the Kentucky Educational Commission*. This commission was authorized by law in 1932 to direct a study of public education in the state. The facts referred to concern the oversupply of teachers. Data in the report indicate that in 1931-32 about 7,400 certificates meeting the standards which the state has set were not being used. About 3,600 of these certificates were based on two years or more of college training. At the same time, more than 9,300 positions were held by persons who had certificates based on a half-year or less of college training. The report states that "it is to be deplored that 3,600 teachers who had standard training had to go without positions, while 9,300 persons who did not have standard training held positions in the schools." The trend of the evidence from Dean Seay's investigation supports the belief that nepotism is a factor contributing to the condition which the commission deplores.

Only further investigation can show to what extent these pernicious practices are being followed in other states. One can be sure, however, that they are not peculiar to Kentucky. At the same time, many communities are known to have carried professionalization so far that nepotism or bribery in any degree would not be countenanced, and our concern should be to secure the universalization of this forthright policy.

#### ENRICHING THE CURRICULUM BY TRANSPORTING TEACHERS

Small high schools far outnumber large high schools. The limitations of these multitudinous small schools are sometimes mentioned and deplored, but it is too seldom that systematic attention is given to ameliorating conditions found in such schools. What to do with the small high school is one of the paramount problems in the whole field of American secondary education. Recognizing the prevalence and importance of the problem, this journal has published

studies of small high schools or proposals for improving them. The article by Professor Platt in this issue is an instance in point. The author serves a state in which more has been done toward studying small schools with the aim of effecting improvement therein than is being done in most other states, a state which has, indeed, been one of the leaders in the work. We are glad to make available to our readers the benefit of Professor Platt's experience and judgment.

There comes to mind one promising means of broadening the curriculum of the small high school which is seldom proposed and even less frequently put to use. We refer to a practice of having teachers of subjects not often found in the small high schools give instruction in those subjects in two or more schools and providing transportation for these teachers from school to school. Occasional prototypes of such a practice may be found. Perhaps the most frequent instances are those in which teachers of special subjects, like the manual arts, home economics, and music, serve two or more elementary schools within city school districts. The teachers in such a plan spend a part of each day or certain days of the week in each school. Less often two or more village school systems near to each other have co-operated in the employment of teachers of music and art, arranging to have these teachers spend a portion of the school week in each co-operating district. The individual schools or systems participating in the plan are ordinarily too small to justify employment of full-time teachers in these special subjects.

The plan is deserving of consideration for wide application at the secondary-school level in areas where small high schools are inevitable. It could be used to provide instruction in many subjects, more especially in industrial arts, home economics, agriculture, commerce, music, art, and physical education, as well as in certain less common academic fields. The usual method proposed for making the introduction of such subjects financially feasible is the transportation of pupils to make for larger school enrolments. It is obvious that providing transportation for a few teachers is much less costly than transporting a large number of pupils. Besides, the sparsity of population is often an insurmountable obstacle to large school units even where pupil transportation has been provided.

The objection that teacher transportation would in most instances

preclude daily instruction in the subjects taught under the plan may be answered by the statements (1) that we have little experimental evidence to show that a small amount of daily instruction in such subjects is preferable to a larger amount concentrated in one or two days and (2) that in the last analysis, from the standpoint of enriching the curriculum, *some* provision for instruction in such fields is better than none at all.

The passing of the horse-and-buggy stage and the advent of good roads and motor-driven vehicles should long since have stimulated enrichment of the curriculum in small high schools by transporting teachers. Unfortunately, the proposal falls on stony ground because of our dominant small-district system. It is doubtful that enrichment by this means will make substantial gains on a strictly voluntary basis among schools and districts autonomous with respect to each other. A much larger district, which would enforce co-operation in this and many other respects, seems essential. Professor Platt's omission of reference to teacher transportation is probably to be explained by a similar conviction and the intent to be of maximum help under current conditions of the organization of small districts. The total of our array of efforts to improve the small school should, however, include abandoning a district organization that is an obstacle to adequate schools.

#### THE STATUS OF TECHNICAL AND TRADE SCHOOLS

Persons aiming to keep informed concerning secondary education in its complete scope at times make inquiries concerning the status of vocational and technical education of less than college grade. Maris M. Proffitt, of the United States Office of Education, has served this need for information by preparing a pamphlet on *Technical and Trade Schools* (Pamphlet No. 44).

In the Introduction to the pamphlet Mr. Proffitt brings home the fact of recent rapid growth of education of this type by quoting a speaker in 1907 as saying, "The most remarkable thing about trade schools is their absence—which is almost complete," and by referring to figures for 1932 of the Federal Board for Vocational Education which show that the total enrolment in vocational courses and schools or classes organized under state plans equaled almost a

fourth of the enrolment in all types of public high schools. The method used in the investigation is described in the following quotation.

Early in the year 1933 the question blank was sent to a few more than 200 schools which had been previously reported as giving instruction in technical and vocational subjects. Approximately 175 forms were returned. A few of the private schools and a small number of the public schools to which the form was sent reported that instruction in technical and vocational subjects was not given. However, 160 schools returned blanks answering all essential questions. Of these 160 schools, 123 are public and 37 private.

The information in the pamphlet, presented largely in tables, relates to enrolments, number of teachers, entrance requirements, length of school year, subjects included in the program of instruction, library and other auxiliary educational facilities, value of buildings and grounds, and endowment funds.

The author summarizes as follows the evidence concerning the auspices under which the schools are maintained.

The private schools included in the study are mostly of the endowed type, and in the services they render are very similar to public schools. In general, however, the private schools with considerable endowment are able to try out new kinds of courses and to make innovations in instruction that public schools hesitate to undertake.

There are various provisions for the organization of public technical and vocational schools. Usually the public schools are local schools, under the control of the local board of education, and constitute an integral part of the local school system. Such schools frequently receive state aid or federal aid through the state department of education, or both state and federal money. In a few states the state itself has established schools open to persons from any place in the state, or in case there is more than one state school open to persons of the district which the school serves. Connecticut, for example, has established trade schools in each of eleven districts. In 1931 the legislature of that state passed an act providing that any "town or city in which a state trade school is not maintained shall pay the reasonable and necessary cost of railway or other transportation of any person between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one years who shall reside with his parents or guardians in such a town or city, and who, with the written consent of the board of education, shall attend a state trade school in another town or city as a regular all-day pupil or as a high-school co-operative pupil; provided no tuition charge shall be made." Thus has Connecticut made provisions for trade training for all parts of the state.

New Jersey has established a system of county vocational schools operated under a separate county board for vocational education. Wisconsin has a sys-

tem of vocational schools, mainly for part-time and evening classes, which are maintained and operated by separate state and local boards for vocational education. This plan does not deny to the regular local school systems the right to establish vocational schools and classes. In fact, some local schools do maintain such classes. State support, however, goes to the schools operated under separate state and local school boards. North Dakota maintains a state school of science conducting trade school classes at Wahpeton. This is strictly a state school, open to any one in the state meeting the entrance requirements.

#### NEW COURSE OUTLINES AND CONTENT FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A prominent feature of the adjustment of the schools to the present crisis is the increased attention given to the social studies. This increase is reflected in various ways, among which is the appearance of numbers of publications for use in the schools intended to improve or enrich instruction in the field. The following quotation from the Foreword of one of these publications expresses well the motive behind the new emphasis.

The breakdown in our social, economic, and political structure has brought into serious question the objectives and purposes which have dominated public education during the past quarter-century. The scientific and industrial development which has characterized this period has demanded an ever-increasing emphasis upon co-operative thinking and acting. Our social and economic structure has sagged under the weight of our lack of both an interest in, and an understanding of, those basic problems which confront contemporary civilization. The final straws that have threatened to break the camel's back are those that grow out of an individualism which makes co-ordinated and unified action difficult. Out of this chaos has emerged a realization that such adjustments should be made in our school curriculum as would attempt to stress pertinent personal and social problems and develop some knowledge of techniques in the solution of these.

The feeling on the part of both the public and the school people has added to the prestige of the social studies.

It seems in place to note briefly several among the publications which have been received in the offices of the *School Review*.

One of these publications is that from which the foregoing quotation was made. It is entitled *Helping Children Experience the Realities of the Social Order*, is issued by the Board of Education at Ann Arbor, Michigan, and is a guide in the social studies at the junior high school level. The work of preparing this three-hundred-page

monograph was done by teachers in the system under the leadership of G. Robert Koopman, principal of the Tappan Junior High School of Ann Arbor and head of the department of social studies. The monograph is organized in three parts with the following suggestive captions: "The Child and the Social Order," "The Social Studies Department as an Agent of Curriculum Integration," and "Self-supervising Units—Channels for the Organization of Experiences." Part III is, in effect, a course outline developed in accordance with principles discussed in Part I and in three "service bulletins" on guidance, excursions, and "local resource survey and social planning" presented in Part II. The outline consists in units for each of the six half-grades of the junior high school period. Three of the total of twenty units for the three years relate specifically to guidance and are called "Orientation to Junior High School" (Grade VII B), "Personal Analysis and Vocational Survey" (Grade VIII B), and "Educational Plans" (Grade VIII A), while certain other units appear to have a less direct but nevertheless significant bearing on guidance. Among names of other units are the following: "Community Health," "Ann Arbor's Adjustment," "City Government and Services," "Selection of Cultural Ideals," "Control of Production," "Fundamental Institutions—Home, School, and Church," "Control of Distribution," "Taxation," "Law Enforcement," and "World Peace." The trend throughout is toward affording pupils opportunities for experience.

From the schools of Minneapolis have come two course outlines in the social studies for junior high school. One of these is in *Seventh Grade Geography*. Five "basic units" are outlined: "Where the People of the World Live," "Population Centers in the Agricultural Stage," "The Most Important Sparsely Settled Regions of the World," "Regions Which Have Reached a High Stage of Industrial Progress," and "Transportation and Communication." Each basic unit is accompanied by two or three "enrichment units," these presumably being added to provide for individual differences. Among differences of this course as compared with most course outlines in geography for junior high school grades is the fact that it is not a mere continuation of the elementary-school course. The second course outline from Minneapolis is one in *Ninth Grade Community Life Problems*, put forth as a "Teacher's Criticism Copy." This

course is made up of four "basic units" on "Group Living," "Industrial Life," "Occupational and Educational Opportunities," and "Government and Citizenship." The units incorporate a large number of topics rated high by teachers, principals, and committee members. A table listing the topics and reporting the ratings is included in the publication.

From the Department of Public Instruction in Pennsylvania comes a course in *School Opportunities and Occupations* for Grade IX, from which the following quotation is taken.

The purpose of this course of study is to round out the preliminary work begun in Grades VII and VIII. In the seventh grade the Course in School Opportunities . . . is designed to help the pupil orient himself to the junior high school years and to preview the opportunities offered by the senior high school. The Eighth Grade Course in Occupations . . . offers an introduction to different occupations.

In this ninth-grade course, the pupil is given an opportunity to study typical occupations in each of the main fields of human endeavor. It is designed also to relate school opportunities and occupations in such a way as to develop appreciation of occupational possibilities, to study more intensely a small section of the world of work, and to help the pupil analyze his own capacities and abilities in terms of possible educational and vocational outlets. At each point emphasis is placed upon the fact that changes are constantly occurring in the professional, industrial, commercial, and agricultural world, and that a prime requisite for success is the ability of the individual to adjust himself to these changes. Not only is it necessary for the individual to grow in his chosen line of work, but he must also be ready to seek new lines of activity if and when the occasion demands.

This course, like those previously described, is divided into units. The six units are headed: "Your School and Your Future," "Investigating Occupations," "High School Occupations and High School Training," "College Occupations and the Science Training Level," "Education for the Employed," and "Checking Your Choice." The outline proper is preceded by a helpful introduction dealing with aims, time allotment, plan of organization, and reference materials for the course.

Two interesting publications which are not course outlines deal with taxation. One of these, *Taxes and Taxation*, by W. B. and H. C. Storm, has been published by McKnight and McKnight, Bloomington, Illinois, and is "offered as a means of helping teachers teach a unit on taxation in social-science or mathematics classes in junior or



senior high school." The textual matter has been developed for use by pupils. Among the chapter titles are the following: "Why a Modern Civilization Needs Taxes," "Principles of Taxation and Old Forms of Taxation," "Newer Forms of Taxation," and "Recommended Reforms." Most of the chapters include projects for classes in the social studies and exercises for classes in arithmetic. The other publication, *Essentials of Taxation*, is by Harley L. Lutz, professor of public finance at Princeton University, and William G. Carr, director of the Research Division of the National Education Association. Members of the association will recognize this brochure as consisting of reprints and preprints of a series of short but meaty articles by these authors appearing currently in the *Journal of the National Education Association*. Because the series will extend through the June, 1934, issue, interested persons are advantaged by securing access at once to all the articles. One of the many uses recommended for the brochure is "as a text for classes in civics in high school." Serviceableness in this connection is suggested by the titles of the articles, namely, "What Is a Tax?" "What Are Taxes For?" "What Is a Good Tax System?" "Who Pays Taxes?" "Types of Taxes: The Property Tax," "Types of Taxes: The Income Tax," "Types of Taxes: The Sales Tax," "Efficient Tax Administration," and "Getting the Facts on Taxes."

Not only do publications like the two last named have a peculiar timeliness in a period when schools are languishing for lack of adequate support, but they serve also to supply a social emphasis long needed in the curriculum of the schools.

#### THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO DINNER

The University of Chicago dinner, given annually during the week of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, will be held at the Chamber of Commerce Club in the Terminal Tower, Public Square, Cleveland, Ohio, on Wednesday evening, February 28, 1934. Alumni, former students, and friends of the University are most cordially invited to attend the dinner. Tickets, at the rate of \$1.25 each, may be secured from William S. Gray, Department of Education, University of Chicago, or from Miss Clara B. Severin, 2593 Dartmoor Road, Cleveland Heights, Ohio.



## ONE HUNDRED YEARS OF HISTORY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES

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In contemplating the career of history in the secondary school during the past one hundred years, one discerns at least four periods, which may be briefly characterized by the words "entrance," "establishment," "maturation," and "revolt." In this article these periods are considered in turn.

### THE ENTRANCE OF HISTORY INTO THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES

There is reliable evidence to establish the fact that history was one of the subjects offered in a number of the secondary schools of this country as early as 1833. While the documentary proof of this fact is confined largely to two states, Massachusetts and New York, there is no valid reason to doubt that the subject was taught in the secondary schools of other states in about the same degree of frequency as it is known to have been taught in Massachusetts and New York. Fragmentary bits of evidence picked up here and there seem to justify a sweeping statement of this nature. Thus, in the country as a whole as it existed in 1833, there seems to be no doubt that history had been at that date somewhat generally accepted as one of the subjects worth offering to the pupils in the secondary schools, namely, high schools and academies.

While the position of history in the secondary schools of this country was somewhat precarious even in 1833, the subject was by no means a newcomer in these schools. As early as 1745 history was among the subjects taught in an academy located at Bohemia, Cecil County, Maryland. Furthermore, when the Philadelphia Academy opened in January, 1751, history had an important place in its program of studies. The precedent for offering the subject in these schools at this early date was at hand in the practice of the private

schools of the time, both day and evening schools. As early as 1734 history was offered in one of these schools located in Boston. It is not uncommon to find history among the list of subjects taught in the evening schools even before the Philadelphia Academy was opened in 1751.

The feeble beginnings of history as a subject of study in secondary schools before the Revolutionary War were not wholly eradicated by the changes wrought during the years the Revolution was running its course. The few academies which arose between 1778 and 1820 were not oblivious to the claims of history. Even the Boston Latin School introduced differentiated history into its program of studies in 1814. Knowing these facts, one is not surprised to find history among the subjects of study in the first high school which opened in Boston in May, 1821. Once having been included in the high-school program in Massachusetts, history was not long in securing a permanent foothold. In 1827 Massachusetts enacted a law which made instruction in United States history obligatory in all high schools in towns of five hundred families or more and instruction in general history in high schools in towns of four thousand inhabitants or more. Thus, by 1833 history was a somewhat important member of the growing family of subjects generally found in the academies and the high schools. A few known facts with regard to the number of academies and high schools in New York and Massachusetts offering history during the early 1830's will establish the truth of this sweeping generalization. During the year 1833-34 all the sixty-three academies reporting in New York offered general history and forty-six offered United States history, a total of 5,309 pupils being exposed to general history and 3,812 to the history of the United States. In Massachusetts 64 towns of 261 reporting for the same year claimed that United States history was offered in their schools, and 29 claimed that history other than United States history was offered therein. If the remaining states in the Union in 1833 were even approximating the situation in New York and in Massachusetts with respect to history in their secondary schools, the subject was certainly not being neglected.

With regard to the values claimed for history as a subject of study during the three decades prior to 1860, it may be stated that

the enthusiastic proponents of the subject proclaimed at least six: (1) History provides valuable training in morals. (2) History furnishes abundant opportunity for the profitable use of leisure time. (3) History is a great inspirer of patriotism. (4) History trains for a higher order of citizenship. (5) History affords occasions for religious training. (6) History strengthens and disciplines the minds of those who master its content. It was under a banner proclaiming these values that the advocates of history as a school subject slowly but surely secured for it a place of more or less importance in the program of studies of both the elementary and the secondary schools of the land.

With no thought of belittling the sincere efforts of those who, during the generation prior to 1860, secured for history a place in the sun of elementary- and secondary-school subjects, one seems justified in applying to them the saying, "The evil that men do lives after them." The claim that the study of history strengthens and disciplines the mind carried in its wake implications of a method of teaching the subject which has done immeasurable harm to the cause of history as a subject of study in the schools. In order to discipline their minds, pupils were, prior to 1860, required to commit textbooks and memorize long chronological tables—two practices that hung around a long time after their uselessness had been generally acknowledged. Furthermore, certain undesirable effects of the patriotic, moral, and religious values were evident in the realm of the subject matter of history long after the supporters of these values had ceased making history. Space is not available here to show how prior to 1890 history was warped to make it support these values. Suffice it to say that years of painstaking efforts on the part of those who created and developed the scientific school of historical writing have been required to replace histories written for other purposes than to portray the unembellished truth.

The undesirable aspects of history as a subject of study which the generation prior to the Civil War bequeathed to the succeeding generation were not wholly confined to values claimed for the subject. In the realm of subject matter the heavy emphasis on political and military history by the writers of the textbooks which appeared before 1860 became in later years one of the chief handicaps to history

as a vital subject in the schools. In eight of these textbooks in United States history, an average of 44.3 per cent of the entire space was devoted to military history and 38.4 per cent to political history. In one of the most used books of the period, 56.2 per cent of the space was devoted to military history. While it is true that Noah Webster's *History of the United States* devoted 41.5 per cent of its space to political history, 25.5 per cent to military affairs, and 34 per cent to social and economic conditions, the general practice was to place heavy emphasis on the political and the military aspects of the nation's life. The hopeful consolation that present-day protagonists of history as a school subject can take in these facts is found in the statement that a bad beginning may result in a good ending.

#### THE ESTABLISHMENT OF HISTORY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

During the generation following 1860 history became firmly established as a subject of study in the secondary schools even though it was not pursued by a large number of pupils. In fact, according to the data available for one state, Ohio, the pupils studying history never exceeded 4.44 per cent of the total enrolment in both the elementary and the secondary schools of the state during the decade of the 1870's, and during the 1880's the percentage did not exceed 13.17. For reasons not explained here, a large increase in this percentage occurred during the 1890's—from 18.56 per cent in 1890 to 38.16 per cent in 1900. It is on the basis of what happened during the 1890's that one is justified in saying that history was firmly established in the secondary school before the close of the nineteenth century.

Since data from one state are not sufficiently representative to justify a conclusion with regard to the status of history in the secondary schools in the country as a whole, reference will be made to some facts which are national in scope. Beginning with the school year 1889-90 the United States Commissioners of Education collected for every year of the 1890's information relative to the number of pupils pursuing history other than United States history. This information was confined to public high schools and private high schools and academies. The percentages of the total number of secondary-school pupils pursuing history other than the history of

the United States in the country as a whole were 27.83 in 1889-90; 31.35, in 1891-92; 37.68, in 1897-98; and 37.80, in 1899-1900. All the states and territories in the Union during the 1890's were represented in the reports. The degree of uniformity in the percentages for the various years is somewhat remarkable. On glancing over a table giving the percentages for each state for each of the foregoing years, one is tempted to conclude that there must have been a dictator of history as a subject of study in the secondary schools of the United States during the 1890's. There is some evidence that during this decade a dictator did in reality exist in the guise of college-entrance requirements. In 1895, out of a total of 475 universities and colleges, 306 required United States history for entrance; 127, general history; 112, Greek history; 116, Roman history; and 57, English history.

Before consideration is given to what happened to history in the secondary school after 1900, it is proper to inquire concerning the nature of the content of the subject during the forty years following 1860. Space is not available to treat this matter in detail. To say that the textbook was "king of kings" and "lord of lords" is one way to summarize the situation. The textbooks in United States history most widely used between 1865 and 1880 were Lossing's *Primary History of the United States*, Anderson's *A School History of the United States*, Barnes's *A Brief History of the United States*, and Quackenbos' *Illustrated History of the United States*. In general history Anderson's *Manual of General History* and Willson's *Outline of General History* seem to have led the field.

When the foregoing textbooks in United States history are analyzed to determine their emphasis on certain aspects of the nation's life, it is found that a large proportion of their pages is devoted to government and war. For example, Quackenbos devoted 70.8 per cent of the pages in his book to these aspects; Barnes, 60.6 per cent; Anderson, 54.7 per cent; and Lossing, 42.4 per cent. If some of the textbooks which appeared during the 1890's are excepted, it seems within the bounds of truth to say that textbooks in history for the secondary schools probably reached a lower level of desirability during the generation following 1860 than they had ever reached before that date or have reached since 1890.

## THE MATURATION OF HISTORY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

During the first fifteen years of the present century, history in the secondary schools of this country reached a maturity which had previously been but faintly approximated. "Maturation," "stabilization," and "conformity" are words which correctly describe what happened to history as a subject of study in the secondary schools between 1900 and 1916. The agency directly responsible for the maturation of history according to a uniform set-up was the report of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association,<sup>1</sup> which was made generally available in the summer of 1899. It would be difficult to overstate the influence of this report on the teaching of history in the secondary schools. Under its leadership a uniformity was attained by 1910 that had never before been known. In fact, so much uniformity developed that the success of the report became in the end the chief reason for its loss of leadership. The four-block set-up of ancient, medieval and modern, English, and American history proposed by the committee was accepted without question in many secondary schools. By 1910 the three-block set-up of ancient, medieval and modern, and American history had been accepted in at least fifteen states. Statistics by states for the country as a whole in 1910 and 1915 tell an illuminating tale. For example, in 1909-10, 55.66 per cent of the pupils enrolled in all schools reporting to the United States Commissioner of Education on subjects pursued were studying history;<sup>2</sup> in 1914-15 the percentage was 51.46.<sup>3</sup> In certain states the percentage was considerably higher than for the country as a whole. In South Carolina the percentage was 91.94 in 1914-15; in Mississippi, 81.61; and in Texas, 80.55. Outside these extreme cases, there was an almost dead level uniformity in the percentages of pupils pursuing history in the various states in 1909-10 and 1914-15.

Turning to the content of history in secondary schools during practically all the first two decades of the present century, one finds a uniformity which probably surpassed that which has been indi-

<sup>1</sup> *The Study of History in the Schools*. Report to the American Historical Association by the Committee of Seven. New York: Macmillan Co., 1899.

<sup>2</sup> Derived from data in *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ended June 30, 1910*, Vol. II. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1911.

<sup>3</sup> Derived from data in *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ended June 30, 1915*, Vol. II. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1915.

cated by the percentages of pupils pursuing history. For example, in 1916-17 in the states composing the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 95.92 per cent of the high schools belonging to the association were offering ancient history; 90.39 per cent, medieval and modern history; 43.02 per cent, English history; and 95.15 per cent, American history.<sup>1</sup> Thus, it seems clear that more than 40 per cent of the 1,032 high schools in the association at that date were offering the exact general content proposed by the Committee of Seven and that almost 95 per cent of them were offering three-fourths of the content which the committee had proposed in 1898. Inasmuch as the textbooks that appeared between 1900 and 1915 in each of the four fields listed were all cut according to the same pattern, there was little variation from the course outlines in ancient, medieval and modern, English, and American history which the New England History Teachers' Association prepared as early as 1901.<sup>2</sup> These outlines supplied the details of organization and content that the Committee of Seven made no attempt to furnish. When the proposals in these outlines entered the schools in the form of textbooks, the critics of these books were not long in discovering that the traditional heavy emphasis on the military and the political aspects of history was perpetuated in them. The average percentage of total space devoted to military and political history in seven textbooks in ancient history in general use in about 1920 was 61.4; in seven textbooks in medieval and modern history the average space devoted to these aspects of history was 73.3 per cent; and in eight textbooks in American history, 77.3 per cent. Thus, it is clearly evident that the generation of secondary-school pupils using these textbooks as the principal source of material in history must have acquired an unbalanced conception of life in times other than their own.

#### THE REVOLT OF THE REFORMERS

Since 1916 history in the secondary schools of this country has been passing through a period of experimentation, diversity, and

<sup>1</sup> These percentages were derived from data in Calvin O. Davis, *The Accredited Secondary Schools of the North Central Association*, p. 95. United States Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 45, 1919.

<sup>2</sup> A Special Committee of the New England History Teachers' Association, *A History Syllabus for Secondary Schools: Outlining the Four Years' Course in History Recommended by the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1901.



confusion. Opposition to the proposals of the Committee of Seven appeared soon after its report became known. The report of the Committee of Five in 1910<sup>1</sup> was an attempt to meet the demands of the dissenters. This report died in infancy. It never received a hearing from those responsible for the history course in the secondary schools because these persons had made up their minds at least five years previous to its appearance to accept almost *in toto* the report of the Committee of Seven. They saw no reason for changing their minds in 1910 even though a dozen years had passed since the Committee of Seven first made known its proposals.

There came a time, however, when those in charge of the instruction in history in the secondary schools decided to change their minds. Following the suggestions incorporated in the report of the Committee on Social Studies,<sup>2</sup> the state of New Jersey in 1916 revolted from the four-block system of the Committee of Seven. In this revolt the cause of high-school history lost one entire school year and was threatened with the loss of two. The states of Pennsylvania, Maryland, Indiana, Texas, Colorado, Oklahoma, and others soon followed the lead of New Jersey. By about 1924 probably two-thirds of the high schools in the country had revolted from the four-block system of the Committee of Seven. About half of these revolters followed the lead of the Committee on Social Studies, and the other half experimented with courses hitherto unrecognized by any committee of national scope. It was this latter group that attempted to transform the traditional general history into world-history. Some of its members were responsible for courses entitled "History of Civilization," "Pacific Rim History," "Spanish American History," "History of the Americas," and "Contemporary History." For the uniformity in titles of courses existing in 1915, there had been substituted by 1927 a diversity of titles that had never before been known. For example, at the later date in 303 high schools, courses in history existed under twenty-five different titles, more than six times as many as were used by the Committee of Seven.

<sup>1</sup> *The Study of History in Secondary Schools*. Report to the American Historical Association by a Committee of Five. New York: Macmillan Co., 1911.

<sup>2</sup> *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*. Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association. United States Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 28, 1916.



To leave the impression that there was no trace of the influence of the Committee of Seven visible during the 1920's would not be true to the facts. In 1921-22, 17.69 per cent of the pupils in the high schools of the country reporting to the United States Commissioner of Education on subjects pursued were studying ancient history; 11.21 per cent, medieval and modern history; 15.32 per cent, American history; and 3.18 per cent, English history.<sup>1</sup> In 1927-28 the percentages were as follows: ancient history, 11.24; medieval and modern history, 11.42; American history, 20.97; and English history, 1.10.<sup>2</sup> There was not a single state in 1921-22 in which each of these fields was not represented. This situation was the same in 1927-28 except in Utah, where no pupils were reported in English history.

When the happenings in the field of secondary-school history since about 1920 are viewed from the standpoint of the content of the courses taught, it must be recorded that at least six significant things occurred: (1) the reduction of the emphasis on traditional ancient history by at least one half, (2) the doubling of the time previously devoted to modern European history, (3) the more or less general introduction of a one-year course in world-history, (4) the doubling of the amount of time previously allotted to American history, (5) the inclusion in the content of all courses of more social and economic material than had previously been present, and (6) the placing on the market of a new crop of textbooks in high-school history. These books were necessitated by the first five outstanding changes mentioned. In fact, the changes themselves were more or less reflected in the new textbooks.

To those who desired significant innovations in emphasis on the various aspects of history, the new crop of textbooks was in certain respects a disappointment. Many of these books were written by the same authors who had written books to conform to the four-block system of the Committee of Seven. This fact gave the appearance of pouring old wine into new bottles. When such a pouring was practiced, neither the wine nor the bottles benefited thereby. Some of these books were lacking in emphasis on the social and the

<sup>1</sup> Derived from data in *Biennial Survey of Education, 1920-1922*. United States Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 14, 1924.

<sup>2</sup> Derived from data in *Biennial Survey of Education, 1926-1928*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 16, 1930.

economic aspects of history. For example, an analysis of six textbooks in modern European history in use in 1924 showed a ratio of 52 to 12 in favor of political and military history. Certainly the textbooks in this field prior to 1925 did not meet the expectations of the ardent reformers who wished to see the ideal of the so-called "new" history realized in the textbooks of the time.

The attempt of the educators to introduce into the high schools a one-year course in world-history was by no means successful when judged from the standpoint of the new course. Because of the fact that the historians did not, at the beginning of the movement for instruction in world-history, react favorably toward it, the supply of textbooks was limited. In fact, most of the textbooks in world-history appearing prior to 1925 were nothing more than rehashes of old material that had formerly been published in textbooks in European history. Furthermore, some of these early so-called "world-history" textbooks had the musty and more-or-less unpleasant odor of the traditional textbooks in general history. Even to this day the ideal of those who favor world-history in the high school has never been much more than approximated in the textbooks that have appeared.

#### THE PRESENT OUTLOOK FOR HISTORY IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

After this brief survey of the career of history in the secondary schools during the past one hundred years, it seems apropos to the discussion to offer a few concluding words with respect to the present outlook for history, attention first being directed to the adverse critics of the subject.

Adverse criticism of history as a subject of study in the secondary school has long been the pastime of a few ardent educational reformers, some of whom have insisted that the pupils would derive greater profit if the time devoted to the subject were spent on subjects which deal with more immediate interests of the present generation. These critics claim that no results from the hours spent in the classroom poring over the musty pages of history are visible in the thoughts and aspirations of those who have been through the so-called "ordeal of learning the lessons that history is supposed to teach." While these critics have no objective evidence to substan-

tiate their contentions, they receive a hearing in some quarters. History today as a subject of study in the secondary schools is on the defensive. It has lost much ground since the heyday of its existence back in the 1910's.

Not in an attempt to defend the career of history in the secondary school, the fact seems worth pointing out that the subject has in reality never had a chance to affect the lives of more than a small percentage of the people as a whole. For example, the United States census of 1910 shows that there were in this country 7,220,298 young people fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, and seventeen years old, the ages generally found in the secondary school. Of this number, about one in ten was enrolled in the schools. Of the 817,653 pupils enrolled in the secondary schools, but 55.66 per cent were pursuing history. These figures mean that less than seven in one hundred, when the total secondary-school population is considered, were exposed to history. A similar situation existed in 1900 and in 1920 and, in fact, has existed throughout the career of history in the secondary school. The pupils who were in the secondary schools in 1910 are now from thirty-seven to forty years old. It would be too much to expect in the lives of these persons significant evidence of historical thinking when less than seven in every one hundred of them have ever had systematic training therein. Of course, some of these persons were exposed to what was termed history during their elementary-school days. The extent of such exposure, however, was not sufficient to expect any glaring effects.

If it be granted that history has never had a chance to influence the lives of the great mass of pupils of secondary-school age (and the figures show this supposition to be the fact), the question arises, "Shall history be given this chance?" Possibly more than half of the pupils of secondary-school ages are now enrolled in the schools. Could 100 per cent of this group be effectively exposed to history every year of the secondary school beginning next year and the process repeated for at least twelve years, there are those who believe that conspicuous results would come to pass. That such a situation will eventuate is no idle dream, for there are at this very hour a few principals of secondary schools who are ready to put such a program into operation.

## A STUDY OF THE RELATION BETWEEN NUMBER OF STUDY PERIODS AND PUPILS' MARKS

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### INTRODUCTION

John Adams High School, Cleveland, Ohio, was built in 1923 to relieve crowded conditions in two neighboring high schools. As the school is situated within a short distance of the city limits on two sides, it was thought at the time of building that the capacity of twenty-five hundred pupils would be ample. The community grew rapidly and drew its population from all sections of Cleveland—persons desiring to move out into the suburban locality but lacking the finances to live in the more exclusive outlying municipalities. Those who came were of every nationality, race, and creed. The section grew into an average community, midway between the wealthy, élite type and the tenement type, and John Adams High School drew its student body from a cosmopolitan group of laborers and small business and professional people. Naturally, then, the school found itself confronted with the task of meeting the needs of a kaleidoscopic group from the standpoint of intelligence and educational requirements. The manner in which this demand was met is reflected in the wide field of courses offered and in the expansion of the facilities for freedom of selection open to those attending.

Among the many interesting aspects of the school organization, there are only two which have a definite bearing on the subject in hand. The first is the manner in which programs were arranged prior to the time this study was made. A master program was prepared by the office, and a copy was given to each home-room teacher, whose duty it was to prepare the programs for all the pupils under his guidance. One of the rules in the making of these programs was that each pupil must be scheduled for a minimum of eight periods a day. Consequently, the home-room teacher usually selected for

each pupil the subjects for which he had previously expressed a desire, taking into consideration, among other things, the intelligence group into which the pupil fell. (The classes were, and still are, divided on the basis of the probable learning rate.) After this selection had been made, all vacant periods were filled in with study periods to make up the required eight periods.

A word at this point regarding the types of study periods maintained in the school seems necessary. These are of two kinds: first, the traditional teacher-controlled study hall and, second, the honor study hall. The first is not what is commonly known in education circles as the "supervised study"; it is merely a patrol type of control. The second type is one of the outgrowths of the new move for pupil participation in school control. Study periods of this type are under the complete supervision of pupil leaders chosen by the vote of their fellow-pupils. The vocational-guidance director for girls is the representative of the administration. Pupils enrolled in these study periods are put on their honor to conduct themselves well, and they are ejected if they do not conform to regulations.

#### THE PROBLEM

By the autumn semester of 1932 the school, with an original capacity of twenty-five hundred pupils, which had been more than sufficient for a short time after the construction of the building, was housing approximately thirty-seven hundred pupils. Needless to say, the school was extremely crowded; something had to be done to relieve the congestion. The principal, Mr. E. E. Butterfield, visioned only one way open to him—to reduce the length of each pupil's school day by excluding study periods wherever possible.

Following this theory, he organized a completely new scheme for the formation of pupils' programs. Under this method the home-room teacher's part is to supply the office with a list of the subjects which each of his pupils is to take. The task of making the programs proper then falls to the principal with his two assistants and the heads of the various departments. The master program is employed as previously, but an attempt is made to bunch the pupil's subjects as much as possible in order to eliminate study periods between classes, and no program begins or ends with a study period. Because

they are not acquainted with the individual pupils, it is impossible for those making the programs to differentiate between pupils in organizing these programs. Because of program conflicts, not all pupils can be freed of study periods, and the number of study periods for each pupil varies.

As a natural outgrowth of this new step in school administration arose the desire to know what kind of scholarship, in terms of marks, those pupils who had no study periods or few study periods were able to attain. Of particular interest would be a comparison of the scholarship of these pupils with the scholarship of those who retained the full, or more nearly full, quota of study periods.

#### METHOD OF GATHERING THE DATA

The complete record and file system of the office at John Adams High School was made use of in gathering the data. The steps taken may be enumerated as follows:

1. The pupils' program cards for the autumn semester 1932-33 were carefully checked, and notations were made on each pupil's card of sex, class, curriculum, number of prepared subjects, and number of study periods. Only prepared subjects were considered since it was felt that the number of study periods would have no effect on the marks made in subjects for which no advance preparation was necessary.

2. The intelligence-rating cards were used to classify the pupils on this basis. The tests that had been made for these ratings were Cleveland group classification tests. Three classifications were used: X, those pupils with probable learning rates above 110; Y, those with probable learning rates from 90 to 109; and Z, those with probable learning rates below 90. The term "probable learning rate" has the same general meaning as the more commonly used "intelligence quotient."

3. The marks made by each pupil were recorded on his card. A five-letter marking system is in use in the school: E, excellent; G, good; F, fair; P, poor; and D, failure.

4. Some exclusions were then made. Postgraduate pupils were not considered since certain elements in their work would have complicated the problem. Pupils who had full shop or home-economics

courses were not included since they were taking no prepared subjects which would have been affected by the number of study periods.

5. The pupils were then put into groups on the basis of the classifications already noted.

6. The following point system was used to equalize the grades: D = 1, P = 2, F = 3, G = 4, and E = 5.

7. The marks made by the pupils within each group were averaged to facilitate handling the large number of cases involved. Separate averages were found for boys and for girls.

8. Since the problem was to determine relations, the obvious statistical method to be employed was that of correlation. Coefficients of correlation, correlation ratios, linearity, and probable errors were computed.

#### CONCLUSIONS AND INTERPRETATIONS

A consideration of the tables prepared to show the results of the calculations made will answer the problem involved in the study.

The data given in Table I indicate that reductions in the number of study periods seemed to have actually beneficial results for both

TABLE I  
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN NUMBER OF STUDY PERIODS AND MARKS OF  
BOYS AND GIRLS IN FOUR HIGH-SCHOOL CLASSES

CLASS	NUMBER OF PUPILS			CORRELATION		
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both
Freshman.....	175	192	367	.24 ± .05	.03 ± .05	.23 ± .03
Sophomore.....	642	712	1,354	.13 ± .03	-.10 ± .02	.11 ± .02
Junior.....	507	504	1,011	.21 ± .03	-.005 ± .03	.20 ± .02
Senior.....	402	375	777	-.03 ± .03	-.15 ± .03	-.09 ± .02

boys and girls of Senior ranking; at least, the negative correlations indicate that those with few or no study periods did better work than those with many. The same conclusion may be drawn in the case of the Sophomore and the Junior girls. Freshmen alone, of both sexes, did better work when given study time in school. In spite of the fact that the correlations for Freshmen are the highest which appear, they are too low to be particularly impressive.



The data in Table II would lead to the conclusion that pupils of high intelligence can be given few or no study periods without fear that their scholarship will suffer. In the case of the girls the reduction was harmless even in the medium group.

The data in Table III indicate that the pupils in the academic curriculum profited to a slight extent by the reduction of school

TABLE II  
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN NUMBER OF STUDY PERIODS AND MARKS OF  
GIRLS AND BOYS IN THREE INTELLIGENCE GROUPS

INTELLIGENCE GROUP	NUMBER OF PUPILS			CORRELATION		
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both
X (above 110) ..	533	493	1,026	$-.02 \pm .03$	$-.13 \pm .03$	$-.09 \pm .02$
Y (90-109) .....	966	1,022	1,988	$.13 \pm .02$	$-.006 \pm .02$	$.04 \pm .01$
Z (below 90) .....	227	268	495	$.33 \pm .04$	$.11 \pm .04$	$.25 \pm .03$

TABLE III  
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN NUMBER OF STUDY PERIODS AND MARKS OF  
BOYS AND GIRLS IN VARIOUS CURRICULUMS

CURRICULUM	NUMBER OF PUPILS			CORRELATION		
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both
Academic .....	726	375	1,101	$-.004 \pm .02$	$-.10 \pm .03$	$-.06 \pm .02$
Commercial .....	191	1,032	1,223	$.11 \pm .05$	$-.05 \pm .02$	$.08 \pm .02$
Industrial .....	702	270	972	$.45 \pm .02$	$.32 \pm .04$	$.40 \pm .02$
Music .....	66	80	146	$.02 \pm .08$	$-.16 \pm .07$	$.12 \pm .06$
Art .....	41	26	67	$.27 \pm .10$	$.14 \pm .13$	$.22 \pm .08$

study time. This finding is the most unexpected of the study because of the fact that this curriculum offers the most difficult subjects. The possible explanation is that the pupils enrolled in the curriculum are, as a rule, those of high intelligence who are preparing for college entrance. Girls in the commercial and the music curriculums also seemed to do better work with fewer study periods.

Quite expected results are found in Table IV. One would anticipate that the smaller the number of subjects for which a pupil must



prepare, the less he will need study time in school. Again the girls fulfilled the expectation to greater extent than did the boys.

That the girls were more able to maintain their scholarship with a reduction in the number of study periods than were the boys is

TABLE IV  
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN NUMBER OF STUDY PERIODS AND MARKS OF  
BOYS AND GIRLS CLASSIFIED ON THE BASIS OF NUMBER OF  
SUBJECTS REQUIRING PREPARATION

NUMBER OF SUB- JECTS REQUIRING PREPARATION	NUMBER OF PUPILS			CORRELATION		
	Boys	Girls	Both	Boys	Girls	Both
1.....	30	29	59	-.10 ± .12	-.41 ± .10	-.27 ± .08
2.....	106	30	136	-.006 ± .06	-.02 ± .12	-.009 ± .06
3.....	690	306	996	.14 ± .02	-.008 ± .04	.09 ± .02
4.....	722	794	1,516	.23 ± .02	.08 ± .02	.14 ± .02
5.....	178	624	802	.44 ± .04	.31 ± .02	.38 ± .02

TABLE V  
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN NUMBER OF STUDY PERIODS  
AND MARKS EARNED BY BOYS AND GIRLS

Sex	Number of Pupils	Correlation
Boys.....	1,726	.17 ± .02
Girls.....	1,783	-.12 ± .02
Both.....	3,509	.06 ± .01

clearly shown by Table V. The correlation for all pupils combined is so small that we may safely assume that the relation between the number of study periods and marks is almost negligible.

#### SUMMARY COMMENTS

The results of this study bear out the original theory of the administrative officers of John Adams High School that no serious damage would result from a reduction of study time within the school program, and the findings may be used as a basis for future action along similar lines in this school if proper consideration is

given to the variations which occurred among different types of pupils in the school.

Probably the safest recommendation to other high schools faced with a like problem would be that they may reduce the number of study periods with confidence that in so doing they will not greatly, if at all, decrease the scholastic attainments of their pupils. Of course, a final solution must be worked out from the standpoint of the individual school, including the possible significance of variations from conditions in the school with respect to length of class periods, typical homes from which pupils come, and the like.

To explain the results which this study reveals would constitute a separate and distinct problem. However, it might be stated that, on the surface at least, there are no apparent additional contributing factors which can be said to have affected the results obtained. Certainly, the type of homes from which the pupils come do not present ideal conditions for study. Furthermore, the study periods maintained in this school have always been of a type to receive the commendation of visiting educational leaders. The explanation of the favorable results cannot be found in either of these angles.

## BUDGETING THE FUNDS OF PUPIL ORGANIZATIONS

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The problem of budgeting the funds of pupil organizations is being given increasing attention by school administrators, activity sponsors, and pupil leaders. In these times, when there is much discussion about balancing budgets, the school fails to perform an obligation if it does not utilize its resources for giving pupils actual practice in conducting the finances of their organizations according to good business procedure. Considerable attention and some experimentation have been given to the method of allocating funds in one city school system recently studied by the writer. Some of the practices may offer suggestions to other schools struggling with the same problem.

Since the administrative organization in this system was not unlike that of many other city systems, only a brief outline need be given here. The superintendent of schools delegated to an assistant superintendent the responsibility for the supervision of pupil activities and to the treasurer of the board of education the responsibility for the accurate accounting of all money received and paid out by the school. Each school treasurer, a civil-service clerk giving full time to the work in the high school, was directly responsible to the principal of the school. Authorization from the superintendent's office for all collections, disbursement of funds only by checks signed by the treasurer and the principal, a monthly report of all financial transactions, a semester report, and a yearly audit of books by the treasurer of the board of education were features of this system which provided for an accurate accounting of funds. General policies were formulated by the superintendent's office, but considerable freedom was given each school in applying these policies to its own situation.

In each of the seven high schools included in this study, a student council headed by the president of the general pupils' organization worked under the guidance of the principal or other faculty members

designated by him. The pupil treasurer of this council was accountable to the school treasurer, and one of the duties of the pupil treasurer was the preparation of the semester budget for pupil activities. The major activities in the various schools were much the same—boys' athletics, girls' athletics, school paper, club and class organizations—but considerable variation was found in the type and the number of club activities. The sources of income were the fifty-cent fee which every pupil was asked to pay each semester and the admission charges to athletic events, dramatic and musical entertainments, variety shows, carnivals, motion-picture shows, and after-school dances. Dues were charged by only a few of the clubs and, in some schools, by the Senior class.

The methods of setting up the semester budget showed the widest range of differences among all practices. An analysis showed two methods of allocating funds: one by a predetermined percentage basis and the other by requests from activities based on "present need." Two of the four schools using the percentage method had experimented with this plan long enough to have worked out a scheme that answered their needs and required little or no variation from year to year. Although the other two schools had not operated long enough under the plan to feel that their apportionment of funds was final, few changes had been made in the year for which figures were secured. In three of these schools the percentage method was applied only to money derived from the general-organization fee. The amount of money to be budgeted each semester ranged from six hundred dollars in the smallest school to one thousand dollars in the largest school. Early in the term a given proportion of this money was credited to certain activities. Each organization knew in advance approximately how much it could depend on receiving. Funds derived from other sources were placed in a general fund. Organizations which required additional money or organizations not provided for in the budget petitioned the student council for money from this general fund, and requests were acted on according to their merit.

The percentage basis used by three schools in allocating funds to school activities is shown in Table I. Caution must be observed in drawing conclusions from this table, as the percentages do not indi-

cate the total receipts for all activities. Some activities, such as boys' athletics and departmental activities (dramatics, band, orchestra, chorus), had other sources of income. However, it is evident that the largest share of the money derived from the fee went to two activities, namely, boys' athletics and the school paper.

TABLE I

PERCENTAGES OF FUNDS ALLOCATED TO VARIOUS PUPIL ACTIVITIES IN THREE HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE SAME CITY

ACTIVITY	PERCENTAGE OF FUNDS ALLOCATED		
	School A	School B	School C
Administration.....	5	0	0
Annual.....	10	0	14
Assemblies and rallies.....	2	0	2
Awards.....	3	0	0
Boys' athletics.....	15	35	30
Building and grounds.....	2	0	0
Classes (6).....	12	0	0
Dramatic organizations.....	1	15	0
Emergency.....	0	5	7
Federations (boys' and girls').....	10	0	0
Girls' athletics.....	5	5	8
Graduation.....	5	0	0
Honor society.....	0	0	4
Injured athletes.....	4	0	0
Music organizations.....	2	8	2
R.O.T.C.....	0	2	0
Scholarships and loans.....	4	0	0
School paper.....	15	25	30
Social program.....	1	5	1
Student aid.....	4	0	0
Unclassified.....	0	0	2
Total.....	100	100	100

School A permitted boys' athletics to supplement this budget with profits from athletic events. In Schools B and C the profits from athletic events were deposited in the general fund, and any activity, including boys' athletics, might petition the council for money from that fund. The school paper had no other source of income since it was not sold in any of the schools in this city and contained no advertising. The annual was sold, but the fact that two of these schools made additional provision for the annual in the budget indicates that it was not self-supporting. The number of items in the

school budget ranged from seventeen in School A to eight in School B. The school treasurers' reports to the board of education showed other items than those mentioned in this table, particularly club organizations, but whatever money was required for their operation was derived from other sources than the pupils' fees and the general school budget.

The budget of School D is given separately in Table II because this school required that all money from all activities—athletic events, dues, dramatic and musical entertainments, dances, dinners,

TABLE II  
PERCENTAGES OF FUNDS ALLOCATED TO VARIOUS  
PUPIL ACTIVITIES IN SCHOOL D

Activity	Percentage of Funds Al- located
Administration.....	7
Bleacher upkeep.....	7
Boys' athletics.....	32
Dramatic activities.....	9
Girls' athletics.....	5
Graduation.....	3
Junior honor society.....	3
Music organizations.....	5
School paper.....	20
Senior honor society.....	3
Stage upkeep.....	6
Total.....	100

etc.—be deposited in a general fund. The percentage plan approved each semester by the student council was then applied to the net proceeds of paid entertainments. In this manner the resources of an activity were distributed throughout the term as the events occurred, or a settlement was made at the end of each month. If the year was a lean one, the budgets of all organizations were decreased, and the reverse was true in a particularly profitable year. The activities did not supplement their budgets with money from other sources, but an organization could build up a reserve by carrying over unused funds from one term to the next. Table II shows the percentage distribution used in this school. Again, it is observed that the two most costly activities of the school were boys' athletics and the school paper.

The "present need" was the basis for determining the budgets of three of the high schools in this city. Each organization wishing money from the pupil-activity funds submitted a request for a certain amount of money and gave an itemized estimate of how this money was to be used. The probable income of the term was estimated by an average year's profit, and requests were granted in full or in part as the student council thought wise. Great variation in the sizes of the schools, lack of uniformity in the sources of budget money, and the limited space of this article make an item-by-item

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTIONS OF AVERAGE EXPENDITURES FOR PUPIL ACTIVITIES MADE IN YEARS 1930-32 IN SEVEN HIGH SCHOOLS IN ONE CITY

ACTIVITY	PERCENTAGE OF EXPENDITURE IN SCHOOL						
	A	B	C	D	E	F	Average
Administration.....	2	0.7	3	6	2	10	5
Assemblies and rallies.....	1	2	1	0	1	3	0
Boys' athletics.....	55	49	29	37	52	32	34
Buildings and grounds.....	2	0.3	7	13	0	5	3
Club organizations.....	9	20	24	25	15	23	22
Girls' athletics.....	7	5	7	6	7	9	16
School paper.....	8	11	17	13	23	17	19
Unclassified.....	16	12	12	0	0	1	1
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

comparison impossible. In order to reduce the budgets of these seven schools to a basis upon which they might be compared, the writer secured the average costs of activities for a three-year period (1930-32) from the reports of receipts and expenditures made to the board of education by the school treasurers. The items of the reports were analyzed and arbitrarily grouped under categories which seemed best to describe the nature of the activities. The results thus obtained were reduced to percentages, which are presented in Table III. The average enrolments of these schools in the years covered by the study were as follows: School A, 1,281; School B, 1,091; School C, 2,116; School D, 2,450; School E, 1,445; School F, 926; School G, 1,353; average of all schools, 1,523. The table shows that the size of the school did not greatly alter the percentage of expenditures for a

given activity. Thus, the largest school, School D, spent 37 per cent of its funds on boys' athletics, whereas the smallest school, School F, spent 32 per cent on this activity. The largest percentage allowed boys' athletics was 55 in School A, which ranked fifth in enrolment, and the smallest percentage was 29 in School C, which ranked second in enrolment. That boys' athletics should spend the highest percentage of the funds is not surprising because the equipment needed to carry on a competitive sports program is costly. The activities next highest were club organizations, which averaged 20 per cent, and the school paper, which averaged 16 per cent. These three groups spent 77 per cent of the pupil-activity money. The fact that the girls' athletic program, being non-competitive in nature, required little equipment in addition to that used in the regular physical-education work is an important factor in accounting for the difference between the average expenditure for girls' athletics (8 per cent) and the average expenditure for boys' athletics (41 per cent).

Table III likewise shows that there is no marked significance between the group of schools (Schools A, B, C, D) operating on a percentage basis and those schools (Schools E, F, G) which used the "present-need" basis in allocating funds. The percentages of expenditures for the various activities differed as greatly in the schools of one group as in the schools of the other group.

What, then, are the advantages or disadvantages of one scheme of making the budget over the other? A percentage system, tried out over a period of years and revised to take into account all types of school activities, insures that the smaller or the weaker organizations will secure their share of the funds without having to defend themselves against the larger organizations. With the shifting personnel of the student council, most of whom are inexperienced in budget-making, such a plan offers an excellent working basis for drawing up the semester budget. When the income of the pupil organizations, like all other incomes in hard times, is problematical, a percentage plan of distribution requires all activities to share alike in the expansion or the curtailment of their programs. A grave danger in the percentage plan is that the allotments may come to be regarded as fixed from one year to the next and thus hinder the school in initiating new activities or developing those already in



existence. A constant evaluation of activities must be maintained and the percentages shifted accordingly. Emergencies must be provided for by a special item which will take care of unforeseen needs.

Some administrators in small schools say they cannot use the percentage plan for such activities as athletics and the school paper. The cost of publishing a paper and the cost of the interschool sports program do not decrease materially with a decrease in the size of the school. Football activities cannot be greatly decreased in lean years if the school is to compete in this sport with its neighbors. There is a minimum of equipment below which the activity cannot fall and still function. If these small schools are to continue with their interschool sports program, the "present-need" budget must be used unless other provision is made by the board of education for equalizing the burden of upkeep in large and small schools. Other administrators say that it is the small school which most needs a system such as the percentage plan to insure a well-balanced activity program. Without some such plan, the larger activities may entirely crowd out the smaller organizations.

Whatever system is used to provide for the financial needs of activities in any school, the budgeting of funds offers a splendid opportunity for pupils to have a part in the careful evaluation of the place and needs of the various activities of the school and in the balancing of expenditures against receipts in order that the pupil organizations may function within their incomes.

## LESS EXPENSIVE ANNUALS

OLIVER KELLEAM GARRETSON  
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The high-school annual or yearbook has been attacked frequently on the grounds both of excessive cost and of lack of educational values. It has not been at all unusual to encounter situations similar to that found four years ago in a small high school in Arizona. The school expended in the publication of its annual \$37.14 for each member of the Senior class, or \$7.46 for each pupil enrolled in the high school. The difference between these figures and the sales price of the yearbook was met by contributions levied on the local business men in the form of advertising,<sup>1</sup> by school entertainments, and by other traditional money-raising schemes. Whatever educational value may have inhered in the preparation of the annual has tended to be reduced materially by the frequency with which the offers of technical assistance (apparently a most elastic term) have been accepted. In extreme cases the staff of the yearbook has been reduced to but little more than a committee for the raising of funds and the transmittal of certain local data.

During the past three years many smaller schools have found it impossible to finance the publication of the yearbook, and it seems imperative that some less expensive means of producing the annual be found if the desire of the pupils, particularly of the graduating Seniors,<sup>2</sup> for a memory or reference book is to be supplied. It is apparent that any substitute for the printed annual should (1) reduce the cost; (2) as far as possible retain those traditional features, such as pictures of groups and individuals, essential to a memory book; and (3) make increased provisions for those educational values inherent in the preparation and production of a project of this nature.

<sup>1</sup> For an evaluation of the annual as an advertising medium, see the decision of the Cleveland Advertising Club reported in Elbert K. Fretwell, *Extra-curricular Activities in Secondary Schools*, p. 365. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931.

<sup>2</sup> J. R. Shannon and Charles Zimmerman, "High-School Graduates' Estimates of Their High-School Annuals," *School Review*, XL (January, 1932), 55-60.

The most feasible solution to this problem seems to involve the utilization of the mimeograph. At the writer's suggestion, one small high school, Florence Union High School, Florence, Arizona, in 1932 produced a mimeographed annual at a cost of only eighteen cents a copy. Although cover designs, sketches, and cartoons were included, the volume was not entirely satisfactory to the student body because pictures of fellow-pupils and faculty members were omitted. The inclusion of kodak pictures and photographs had been considered and had been found to be too expensive. It was found after some experimentation that pictures satisfactory for this purpose can be produced with photographic (rapid) blue-print paper at a cost of less than .03 of a cent per square inch. In addition to the advantage of low cost, this paper, because of its slower speed of printing, is somewhat easier for high-school pupils to handle than standard photographic printing paper. Since it is relatively thin and has little tendency to curl, it is easy to mount and does not have the awkward, rigid appearance of mounted kodak pictures. These pictures may be printed on blue, black, red, or green paper.

A solution of the problem of providing economical illustrations makes pertinent the following suggestions relative to the production of the annual. Through the use of a mimeoscope, which may be constructed at very little expense by the pupils of the manual-arts department, the pages of the annual may be decorated with panels, sketches, and decorative materials. These should be designed and transferred to stencils by the pupils of the art classes. Pupils of the commercial department may then type in the content materials and complete the mimeographing. It has been found that about forty-five pound stock is necessary if the paper is to be mimeographed on both sides and is to carry photographs without buckling. The hard-finished paper usually desired in publications of this type offers no difficulties provided sheets of soft or absorbent-finished paper be placed between the pages at the time of mimeographing and allowed to remain until the ink has dried.

The pictures for the illustrations may be taken with any good camera. Photographs of individuals will necessitate the use of a photographic attachment for the lens. The development and the printing of the photographs can be done by the pupils in the physics classes. The use of a printing-box with an ordinary light bulb as the

source of light will facilitate the timing of prints and the production of pictures of uniform density. This printing-box, as well as the printing frames, may be constructed in the manual-arts department. The pictures should then be cut to fit the blanks in the panels of the annual and mounted with dry adhesive by the pupils in the home-economics classes. Dry adhesive, which will prevent the buckling of the pages, is obtainable in sheets from any photographic-supply house, and the picture is mounted by the application of dry heat. An ordinary flatiron has been found to be quite satisfactory for the application of the heat if care is exercised to see that the paper is not scorched in the process.

The most satisfactory cover seems to be artificial leather. This material is relatively inexpensive, durable, and, if suitably decorated, adds much to the general appearance of the volume. After the thickness of the annual has been determined, the leather should be cut in dimensions which will permit folding over the back and the leaving of an over-hang of approximately one-half inch at top, bottom, and front. The leather may be decorated by the pupils of the art classes by means of linoleum-block printing, stencils, or other methods. The cover should be laced over the pages with strips of self-material passed through holes punched through the cover and the pages.

The elaborateness of an annual of this type is limited only by the skill and the ingenuity of the pupils and by the limit in cost set by the school. All the work should be done by the pupils, and much, if not all, of it can be carried on as legitimate curriculum projects of sound educational value. The finished product may have the content, arrangement, and appearance of the traditional yearbook and thus eliminate the common objection of pupils to special issues or bound volumes of the school paper. It may be mentioned, incidentally, that many smaller high schools unfortunately do not publish any type of school paper. In addition to the more reasonable cost<sup>1</sup> and the opportunity to realize to a greater degree the educational values inherent in the successful completion of a group project of this nature, the pupils will be relieved of the necessity of soliciting, and the local business men of buying, advertising of doubtful value.

<sup>1</sup> Following this general technique, Glendale (Arizona) Union High School in 1933 produced a 98-page annual containing 21 half-page photographs at a total cost of \$99.95 for 285 copies. The sales price of the annual was 50 cents, and the project closed with a profit of approximately \$30.00.

## CURRICULUM ENRICHMENT FOR THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

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### ENRICHMENT AND INDIVIDUALIZATION

To present-day educational thinking enrichment and individualization are but different approaches to the same thing. Both can be carried on within a course by employing certain methods or techniques. These methods make it possible for the teacher to appeal to the interests, to adjust to the abilities, and to care for the needs of each pupil within the relatively narrow limits of the subject. A school that offers a restricted number of subjects can individualize or enrich to only a limited degree. It cannot go beyond the possibilities permanently existing within the subjects taught. A school can overcome these restrictions to the extent that it can offer more subjects.

### INDIVIDUALIZATION AND ENRICHMENT WITHIN A SUBJECT AN ACCOMPLISHED FACT

During the past few decades individualization or enrichment has been a major premise to the educator who has built a logical philosophy for his field. Many persons interested in experimenting in education have tried various methods and techniques for individualizing instruction within a subject or course. Among these techniques are variations of the unit assignment, such as those known as the Winnetka system, the Morrison unit plan, the project method, the Dalton plan, the problem method, and the contract plan. Through the great amount of research in this field, underlying principles have been discovered and utilized.

At the present time supervisors and administrators are stressing methods of classroom individualization. Of course, it is easy for the administrator and the supervisor to insist that each teacher broaden the subject content and adjust the method of instruction to meet the

individual requirements of each pupil. However, after an administrator has demanded that the teacher attempt to furnish opportunities for individual growth within each subject, it would appear only fair that the administrator try to care for individual pupil requirements within the curriculum or curriculums. The executive of the small high school owes a duty to his teachers and to his community to make curricular provisions for the special abilities, the vocational trends, and the avocational interests of the pupils registered in his school. In addition, he should feel obligated to supply courses that are suited to the physical, mental, or social handicaps of many pupils.

Any high school that has such a broad curriculum can meet the needs for adult education when they arise. Unemployed graduates or other unemployed young people in the community can find courses suited to their individual needs and interests in such a secondary school. Should not the administrator of the small high school consider it his duty to try to care for the educational needs of the postgraduate pupils and of the adults in the community whom his high school is supposed to serve?

#### INDIVIDUALIZATION AND ENRICHMENT OF THE CURRICULUM OF THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

A canvass of the studies on individualization indicates that research workers have almost forgotten to investigate methods or techniques for individualizing and enriching the curriculum of the small high school through the addition of subjects. There have been drives in various sections of the country toward consolidation. Of course, consolidation is one way of enlarging the curriculum, for it has been found that, in a school where more teachers are employed and where a larger number of pupils attend, relatively more subjects are offered. Speaking generally, the only method of enriching the curriculum of the small high school or of caring for the individual interests and abilities of the pupils outside the confines of certain subjects has been to employ more teachers. America cannot afford to await the practicability of consolidation. The human waste is too great. Unhappiness, vocational misplacement, and loss from undiscovered genius make the price too great. If methods for individualization and enrichment within subjects have been made possible

through research, why cannot methods for individualization and enrichment within small high school curriculums be devised?

The writer wishes to propose four methods of individualizing and enriching the curriculums of small high schools: (1) scientific schedule arrangement, (2) combination of classes, (3) the radio, and (4) correspondence study. Experimentation is being carried on at the present time in one or more of these fields by various agencies and research groups. The state of Nebraska is attempting to utilize all four of these methods in a state program the definite purpose of which is to enrich and individualize the curricular offerings of the small high schools of the state. The University of Nebraska, through the co-operation of the University Extension Division and the Department of School Administration, is sponsoring the program. The State Department of Public Instruction indorses the program although not actively sponsoring it.

#### SCIENTIFIC SCHEDULE ARRANGEMENT

Scientific schedule arrangement involves several factors. One of these is the complete utilization of various techniques of alternation. Careful study has shown that there is a definite science to the alternation of classes.<sup>1</sup> A program of alternation must involve a large unit, preferably the state. It must be practical for every school within the state. It must work equally well for one-year, two-year, three-year, and four-year high schools. It must be adaptable to changing needs within any given school. It must be possible to increase the number of subjects offered or the teaching personnel or to reduce the number of subjects or the teaching personnel without disturbing the basic alternation scheme. An alternation program once adopted by the school must continue to function over an indefinite number of years.

In addition to careful alternation, scientific schedule arrangement for small high schools must take into consideration teacher loads and the subject preparations of teachers. It must consider the possibilities of the combination of classes. A proper division of the school day for the pupils of the various grades must not be overlooked.

<sup>1</sup> Knute O. Broady, Earl T. Platt, and M. D. Bell, *Practical Procedures for Enriching the Curriculums of Small Schools*, pp. 10-18. Educational Monographs, No. 2. Lincoln, Nebraska: Extension Division, University of Nebraska, 1931.



Subject majors and minors must be kept intact. If at all possible, instructors should not be asked to teach a class and at the same time handle a study hall or an assembly. Opportunities for subject elections should be numerous, especially in the upper grades. Finally, it must be possible to introduce into any school, by gradual rather than by revolutionary steps, the scientific schedule arrangement which has been proposed for a region or a state.

Such a schedule arrangement has been prepared for the small high schools of the state of Nebraska.<sup>1</sup> Because of the difficulties encountered in adjusting the schedules in many small high schools of the state, the University of Nebraska offered the services of the members of its staff who were qualified to assist. Scores of small high schools in the state have begun or have completed the necessary adjustment, consuming one to three years, in order to change from their old schedules.

#### COMBINATION OF CLASSES

Classes with one to twelve or fifteen pupils are frequently found in small high schools. The author recently made a survey of the 556 Nebraska high schools accredited to the University of Nebraska. In these high schools teachers were actually teaching 112 classes of from one to three pupils each, 819 classes of from four to seven pupils each, 1,995 classes of from eight to twelve pupils each, and 3,010 classes of from thirteen to eighteen pupils each. Over 350 high schools with from one to four years of work that were not accredited to the University of Nebraska were not canvassed. It is certain that, if the figures for these schools had also been available, the number of small classes would have been greatly increased.

When completely individualized instructional material is used for each subject and when several of these small classes appear in one school, the classes can be combined and taught at the same time by the same teacher without injury to the educational product.<sup>2</sup> When

<sup>1</sup> a) T. S. Rosen, "Schedules and Curriculums for Small Six-Year High Schools." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Nebraska, 1932.

b) Knute O. Broady, Earl T. Platt, and M. D. Bell, *op. cit.*, pp. 25-50.

<sup>2</sup> Earl T. Platt, "Techniques for Enriching the Curriculum of Two-Teacher, Four-Year High Schools in Nebraska." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Nebraska, 1930.

such combination of classes has been employed, it has been possible for the same faculty to offer one or more additional subjects.<sup>1</sup> When this technique is employed, certain factors must be guarded: (1) Instructors must continue to teach within their fields of preparation. (2) The teaching load must not become unduly heavy. (3) Teachers who are skilled in the methods of individualization must be employed.

#### THE RADIO

Much experimental study has been carried on in the use of the radio for educational purposes. The writer has no fault to find with these experiments. He would, however, like to see undertaken an extensive plan of research which would seek to establish the feasibility of using the radio as a medium for enriching the curriculums of the small high schools. Such a plan must necessarily take cognizance of three factors: First, the plan would have to be state-wide, as most small high schools definitely follow the course of study prepared under the auspices of the state university, or the state department of education, or both. Then, too, if the program were state-wide, all the educational facilities of the state would be available to those educators who would be employed in the preparation of the programs. A state-wide plan would be financially feasible. A sufficiently large number of schools could utilize the courses so that the expenditures involved would be justified. Second, the plan would have to be so inclusive that the curricular needs of the small high schools in the state would be discovered. Attempts to teach over the air subjects which are already being well taught and adequately enriched by local teachers would appear futile. The radio should be used to enrich, not to displace. Third, the plan should attempt to evaluate the results of the teaching by radio.

As a part of the Nebraska program for enriching the curriculums of small high schools, one radio course was introduced in 1932-33. Nineteen schools made use of all or part of the course, and more than seven hundred pupils were served. As the experiment was undertaken mainly to secure data on the feasibility of administering such courses in the local schools and of preparing such courses at the

<sup>1</sup> Walter R. French, "An Analysis and Revision of Fifty Typical Schedules of Smaller Nebraska High Schools." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Nebraska, 1932.

University of Nebraska, little material was obtained on how much pupil learning took place. The University and the superintendents of the co-operating local schools found teaching by radio administratively feasible.

#### CORRESPONDENCE STUDY

Correspondence study, the fourth method of enriching the curriculums of small high schools, is being given considerable attention. The great possibilities of correspondence study are becoming apparent. Through its use the curricular offerings of the small high school can become virtually unlimited. True and complete individualization within the curriculums of small high schools can become a reality.

The "Benton Harbor Plan" of Benton Harbor, Michigan, initiated and sponsored by Superintendent S. C. Mitchell, has become nationally known. A number of small high schools in the country are at present enriching their curriculums through the same plan or a similar procedure adapted to their school requirements.<sup>1</sup> Considerable impetus has been given to this method of enrichment in Nebraska through a joint grant made to the University of Nebraska by the Carnegie Corporation and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The grant has enabled the University of Nebraska to carry on an extensive research program in what is termed in Nebraska "supervised correspondence study." Because the results of this research have been previously reported,<sup>2</sup> no additional explanation will be given here.

#### SERVICES RENDERED TO THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL BY A STATE PROGRAM OF INDIVIDUALIZATION AND ENRICHMENT

In order that the reader may secure a clear picture of the services which a state program of individualization and enrichment can render to the small high school, the following outline of services is appended.

<sup>1</sup> Grayson N. Kefauver, V. H. Noll, and C. E. Drake, "How Forty-six High Schools Use Correspondence Courses," *School Life*, XVII (May, 1932), 161-62.

<sup>2</sup> a) Albert A. Reed, "Nebraska's Experiment with Rural High Schools," *Educational Record*, XIV (July, 1933), 310-19.

b) Knute O. Broady, "The Nebraska Plan of Enriching the Curriculums of Small High Schools," *Proceedings of the National University Extension Association*, XVI (1933), 80-84.

1. It becomes possible for the state university to establish a new relation with the high schools of the state. (The university can accept the leadership in preparing and recommending all types of high-school courses in order that each high school may make available to its pupils the subjects which are necessary and adaptable to the needs of the community and the abilities and interests of the pupils. The university takes each high school as it exists and in a positive way helps it toward ever higher standards.)
2. It becomes possible to offer a great variety of subjects in the small high school. This great variety of subjects, in turn, makes it possible to care for pupils with—
  - a) Special abilities.
  - b) Vocational and avocational interests.
  - c) Physical, mental, or social handicaps.
3. It becomes possible for the administrator of a small high school to care for irregular pupils without changing the plan of subject alternation which has been adopted for the school.
4. It becomes possible through the small high school to meet the need for adult education when such need arises. The state and community can care for the following classes of persons:
  - a) Unemployed high-school graduates or other unemployed young people in the community.
  - b) Employed young people or adults who are desirous of extending their training.
  - c) High-school graduates who find it impossible to attend college. (This group can be given college courses.)
  - d) Adults seeking information and advice regarding correspondence courses. These will find in the community someone who is able to render expert advice on correspondence courses. (A state program of individual instruction presupposes that the administrator of each local high school which co-operates in the program will be informed with regard to correspondence courses.)
5. It becomes possible to eliminate virtually all small classes.
6. Pupils who are unable, because of location or of finances, to attend regularly organized high schools can secure education at the secondary level. (This service is especially important to rural pupils who live outside high-school districts and to pupils who are confined in state institutions where formal education ends with the elementary school.)
7. It becomes possible to decrease the teaching load of the small school administrator and of overloaded teachers.
8. It becomes possible to supply all teachers with individual instructional material for all classes. This material can serve in the following ways:
  - a) As supplementary material for regular classroom instruction.
  - b) As instructional material for regular teachers who are poorly prepared.
  - c) As instructional material for regular teachers who need to be relieved of routine work.

- d) As a guide to inexperienced teachers in preparing courses.
- e) As a vehicle for introducing methods of instruction and types of textual material which will assist teachers in vitalizing their teaching.
- 9. It becomes possible to keep curriculum materials dynamic and up to date. Each course can be introduced as soon as it is prepared. All courses can be regularly revised both in content and in method.
- 10. It becomes possible to stimulate and co-ordinate experimentation in the small high school.
- 11. It becomes possible for the state to facilitate educational equalization.
- 12. It becomes possible for secondary-school pupils to learn about the methods and about the possibilities of the greatest single organized vehicle for adult education—correspondence study.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION<sup>1</sup>

### II. THE SUBJECT FIELDS

LEONARD V. KOOS AND COLLABORATORS

The subject fields represented in the lists below are those usually referred to as "academic." Lists in the "non-academic" fields will appear in the March issue. The lists contain items on the major aspects of instruction, namely, the curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement. All the items included were published after completion of the preparation of the lists appearing in the February, 1933, issue of the *School Review*.

#### ENGLISH<sup>2</sup>

HAROLD A. ANDERSON

54. ANDERSON, HAROLD A., and TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "Group Corrective Spelling in the Junior High School—An Experiment," *School Review*, XLI (October, 1933), 595-603.  
Reports an experiment in teaching remedial spelling to groups in Grades VII and VIII of the University High School of the University of Chicago.
55. BEHRENS, H. D. "Remedial Reading for Junior College Students," *Junior College Journal*, III (December, 1932), 146-49.  
Describes an experiment in teaching remedial reading to 139 Freshmen at Ohio State University.
56. CARROLL, HERBERT A. "A Method of Measuring Prose Appreciation," *English Journal*, XXII (March, 1933), 184-89.  
Describes the construction of an instrument for measuring objectively prose appreciation.
57. CENTER, STELLA S. "The Liberalism of the National Council of Teachers of English," *Education*, LIII (November, 1932), 164-69.

<sup>1</sup> This list is one of a cycle of twenty lists of selected references covering all major aspects of the field of education which is being published co-operatively by the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*.

<sup>2</sup> See also Items 300 and 351 appearing in the October, 1933, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and Items 511 and 514 in the November, 1933, number of the *School Review*.

An excellent brief history of the achievements of the National Council of Teachers of English.

58. CENTER, STELLA S. "The Responsibility of Teachers of English in Contemporary American Life," *English Journal*, XXII (February, 1933), 97-108.

The presidential address delivered before the National Council of Teachers of English in November, 1932, at Memphis, Tennessee. An excellent analysis of the changing character of English instruction to meet the needs of present social life.

59. CHAMBERLAIN, ESSIE. "International-Mindedness through Books," *English Journal*, XXII (May, 1933), 382-91.

Describes an experiment carried out with two Junior and two Senior sections in the Oak Park High School, Oak Park, Illinois, in extensive reading of books relating to America's place in world-relationships. Lists eighty titles representative of the extensive list of eighteen hundred titles reported by pupils.

60. "Contemporary Literature in America, 1932: A Partial List," *English Journal* (College Edition), XXII (November, 1933), 729-67.

A list of 140 books in the field of contemporary American literature reviewed by members of the Committee on Contemporary Literature of the University of Michigan. The list is divided into five divisions: (1) biography and autobiography, (2) drama and the theater, (3) essays and criticism, (4) novels and short stories, and (5) poetry. The reviews range in length from a few lines to nearly a page.

61. COOK, ALICE RICE. "English in the Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, III (March, 1933), 313-18.

Discusses critically courses in English offered to students in the first two years of college and offers suggestions for a course in composition and literature for junior-college students.

62. DALE, EDGAR. *How To Appreciate Motion Pictures*. Payne Fund Studies of Motion Pictures and Youth. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. Pp. xii+244.

An excellent manual for teaching motion-picture appreciation in the high school. The book represents a long and careful study; it was used first in three mimeographed editions and one printed experimental edition before it was finally released in its present form. Without doubt, the best material of its kind in the field.

63. DAVIS, CALVIN O. "The Association's Views on English," *North Central Association Quarterly*, VII (March, 1933), 409-26.

An interesting review of the activities sponsored and carried out by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools through its various commissions and agencies since 1898. Contains valuable discussion on aims and objectives in English. States clearly the association's views with respect to the course of study in English.



64. DUNLAP, MOLLIE E. "Recreational Reading of Negro College Students," *Journal of Negro Education*, II (October, 1933), 448-59.  
Describes the technique and presents the results of a study of the recreational reading habits of negro students at Atlanta, Fisk, and Howard Universities, Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, West Virginia State College, Winston-Salem (North Carolina) Teachers College, and a few negro students at the University of Michigan and the Western State Teachers College at Kalamazoo, Michigan.
65. ENGLEMAN, EDWARD U., and SHANNON, J. R. "An Analysis of Teachers' English Errors," *English Journal* (College Edition), XXII (January, 1933), 45-52.  
Reports an analysis of English errors found in the written and oral English of 1,362 Indiana and Ohio teachers and in more than 1,400 sets of "supervisory notes" collected from critic teachers or other supervisors in six cities.
66. FREDERICK, JOHN T. "The Place of Creative Writing in American Schools," *English Journal*, XXII (January, 1933), 8-16.  
Differentiates creative writing from other forms of composition, describes classroom conditions conducive to genuine creative work, and argues for greater emphasis on the creative values in education as contrasted with the utilitarian values.
67. FROGNER, ELLEN. "Problems of Sentence Structure in Pupils' Themes," *English Journal*, XXII (November, 1933), 742-49.  
Presents the findings of an analysis of sentence structure in 2,821 compositions written by 959 representative pupils in three junior and three senior high schools in Minneapolis.
68. GRAY, WILLIAM S. "Provisions for Individual Differences in Reading Efficiency," *Provision for the Individual in College Education*, pp. 144-58. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, Vol. IV. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932.  
Reviews and summarizes studies of reading habits and experiments to improve reading ability among college students.
69. HATFIELD, W. WILBUR. "Social Changes and 'English,'" *English Journal*, XXII (September, 1933), 536-41.  
Reports a questionnaire study, participated in by twenty-two "educational theorists and prominent teachers," of obvious social changes in American life and corresponding changes needed in the teaching of English.
70. KITSON, HARRY DEXTER. "Contemporary Biography for Use in Vocational Guidance," *Teachers College Record*, XXXV (October, 1933), 25-32.  
A selected list of sixty-nine biographies which have appeared in the last three years.

71. LYMAN, R. L. "The Enrichment of the English Curriculum," *English Journal*, XXII (May, 1933), 358-66.  
A valuable discussion of five major ways in which the English curriculum may be enriched.
72. McCAGUE, ANNA. "References on Teaching the Use of Books and Libraries," *Wilson Bulletin for Librarians*, VIII (October, 1933), 96-101.  
A selected list of eighty-five references on teaching pupils how to use books and libraries. The list contains fifty-nine references to books and pamphlets and twenty-six to articles in periodicals.
73. MOMENT, G. B. "Basic English as a Universal Auxiliary Language," *School and Society*, XXXVIII (October 21, 1933), 538-40.  
A good discussion of "Basic English," a language of 850 words "by the use of which it is possible to say anything that would normally come up in the way of writing and talking."
74. POOLEY, ROBERT C. "Grammar and Usage in Composition Textbooks," *English Journal*, XXII (January, 1933), 16-20.  
Presents the conclusions of a two years' intensive study of the current textbooks in composition. Shows the shortcomings of these textbooks, particularly in matters of usage.
75. POOLEY, ROBERT C. "Correct English for Modern Needs," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VII (May, 1933), 558-60.  
A brief article which explains the nature of the Leonard monograph, *Current English Usage*, and seeks to defend the study from the attacks found in the columns of Associated Press newspapers.
76. PRESSEY, S. L., and CAMPBELL, PERA. "The Causes of Children's Errors in Capitalization: A Psychological Analysis," *English Journal*, XXII (March, 1933), 197-201.  
An intensive study of the causes of error in capitalization in two ninth-grade classes.
77. SEELY, HOWARD FRANCIS. *On Teaching English*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1933. Pp. xx+392.  
A book on methods of teaching oral and written composition in the secondary school. The book is an outgrowth of the author's experience as a teacher of composition in high school and college.
78. SHEPHERD, EDITH E.; ANDERSON, HAROLD A.; CAMPBELL, GLADYS; THOMAS, RUSSELL; TRAXLER, ARTHUR E.; with the co-operation of R. L. LYMAN. *English Instruction in the University High School*. Publications of the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago, No. 4. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1933. Pp. x+178.  
Discusses the aims and the purposes of English instruction in the University High School of the University of Chicago, describes procedures employed in

typical units of instruction, and describes certain special features of the English curriculum.

79. SHORES, LOUIS. "A Comparison of the Reading Interests of Negro and White College Students," *Journal of Negro Education*, II (October, 1933), 460-65.  
Presents the findings of a comparative study of the reading interests of negro students at Fisk University and white students at the University of Chicago.
80. SMITH, DORA V. *Instruction in English*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 20. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. vi+90.  
An excellent survey of general trends, suggestive innovations, and outstanding practices in the teaching of English in the secondary schools of this country.
81. SMITH, DORA V. "Vital Factors in the Present Situation in Class Size," *English Journal*, XXII (May, 1933), 366-74.  
A critical analysis of the conclusions of experiments in class size in English and a thought-provoking discussion of factors frequently ignored in such experimentation.
82. STALNAKER, JOHN M. "A Wordiness Test for the Higher Levels," *English Journal* (College Edition), XXI (December, 1932), 834-38.  
Discusses the need for objective tests of "wordiness" and describes such a test used with Freshmen at the University of Chicago.
83. STALNAKER, JOHN M. "Attempts To Measure the Ability To Write with Clarity and Accuracy," *School and Society*, XXXVII (January 14, 1933), 69-72.  
Describes and discusses critically various types of examinations in composition recently administered to Freshmen at the University of Chicago.
84. STALNAKER, JOHN M. "Objective Placement Tests in English Composition," *English Journal* (College Edition), XXII (May, 1933), 395-403.  
A critical discussion and analysis of English placement tests used by colleges. Lists nine published placement tests in English so used.
85. STALNAKER, JOHN M. "Testing the Ability To Organize," *English Journal* (College Edition), XXII (September, 1933), 561-67.  
A critical discussion of methods employed to measure ability of college Freshmen to organize material for presentation in written form. Describes an objective test for measuring such ability which was developed and used at the University of Chicago.
86. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "Group Corrective Reading in the Seventh Grade—An Experiment," *School Review*, XLI (September, 1933), 519-30.  
Reports an experiment in teaching corrective reading to groups (as contrasted with individual remedial instruction) in Grade VII of the University High School of the University of Chicago.

87. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E., and ANDERSON, HAROLD A. "Group Corrective Handwriting in the Junior High School—An Experiment," *School Review*, XLI (November, 1933), 675-84.

Reports an experiment in teaching remedial handwriting to groups of pupils in Grades VII and VIII in the University High School of the University of Chicago.

#### THE SOCIAL SCIENCES<sup>1</sup>

R. M. TRYON

88. BARNARD, ARTHUR F. "Supplementary Work in Greek History," *Historical Outlook*, XXIV (October, 1933), 310-14.

The presentation of the plan used in teaching a unit of understanding in history by one who has had much experience in organizing and teaching history according to the unit-mastery plan of instructional procedure.

89. DEWEY, A. GORDON. "The General Course in Political Science," *Journal of Higher Education*, IV (January, 1933), 9-14.

A plea for a course in general social science at the college level which shall emphasize thought as well as memory on the part of the students and an exposition of the principles which should govern the content and the method of such a course.

90. ELLWOOD, CHARLES A. "Emasculated Sociologies," *Social Science*, VIII (April, 1933), 109-14.

A strong defense of sociology as a subject concerned with human betterment and a condemnation of sociology merely as a study of past social evolution, sociology merely as a study of the forms and processes of social interaction, and sociology merely as a natural science.

91. FLICK, O. S. "Problems and Methods in the Teaching of Economics and Sociology in the High School," *Historical Outlook*, XXIV (May, 1933), 254-59.

An attempt to answer questions relative to the ultimate purpose, content, method, and extent of the social sciences in the secondary school.

92. HENDERSON, HELEN A. "A New Approach to the Study of American History," *Historical Outlook*, XXIV (March, 1933), 149-53.

An attempt to organize American history for teaching purposes in such a way as to make sure that the past is linked with the present. Ten truths which are the basis for the same number of units of understanding constitute the frame of reference for the entire course.

93. KIMMEL, WILLIAM G. *Instruction in the Social Studies*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 21. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. vi+106.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 371 in the October, 1933, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

A description of present practices in the social sciences in fifty-five junior high schools and forty-three senior high schools as revealed through courses of study and personal visits to forty-one schools in thirteen cities.

94. LEAVITT, ABRAHAM. "An Experimental Class in Modern European History," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XVI (October, 1933), 11-20.

A description of a high-school course in European history based on topics of current interest as revealed in the *New York Times* and the *New York Herald-Tribune*. An abridged outline of the contents of the course accompanies the discussion.

95. LINDQUIST, E. F., and ANDERSON, H. R. "Achievement Tests in the Social Studies," *Educational Record*, XIV (April, 1933), 198-256.

An able defense of the use of the general-achievement test in the field of the social sciences, with an extended discussion of various aspects of this test. The treatment is, on the whole, somewhat technical.

96. MACCRACKEN, JOHN H. "High School Textbooks in Government," *Educational Record*, XIV (April, 1933), 162-82.

A digest of the information regarding the League of Nations contained in about thirty textbooks in the social sciences. No evaluation of the information is attempted.

97. MARKS, FLORENCE POOL. "The Social Studies in Grades IX-XII in Re-organized and Un-reorganized Schools," *School Review*, XLI (May, 1933), 347-55.

A presentation of some data gathered in connection with the National Survey of Secondary Education. It was found that twenty-one different subjects were offered in the junior high schools and twenty in the four-year high schools. Sixteen of the subjects were common to both schools.

98. PECK, MARY E. *Teaching History in High School*. Farmville, Virginia: State Teachers College, 1933. Pp. 96.

A monograph for student teachers and apprentices in high-school history. Emphasizes principles, objectives, and procedures.

99. SCHILPP, PAUL ARTHUR. "The Social Scientist: The Man of the Hour," *Social Science*, VIII (January, 1933), 7-12.

An able defense of the thesis that the great need of the hour is the social scientist, an individual who has a thoroughgoing knowledge and understanding of human relations and the ability to show people how to live together.

100. SWINDLER, ROBERT E. *Social Studies Instruction in the Secondary Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1933. Pp. xvi+348.

A treatment of the practical aspects of the teaching of the social sciences in the secondary schools. Emphasizes objectives, library equipment, curriculum-building, and a method of teaching.

101. TAYLOR, ARTHUR S. "Social Science Aims in Junior Colleges," *Junior College Journal*, IV (October, 1933), 16-20.  
A report of a questionnaire study of aims in the social sciences at the junior-college level. Eleven aims were evaluated by ninety-seven instructors in the social sciences in private and public junior colleges from a list submitted to them.
102. TURBERVILLE, A. S. "History Objective and Subjective," *History*, XVII (January, 1933), 289-302.  
An attack on the subjective interpretation of history and a plea for objective reality in the writing of history. A stimulating treatment of an important subject.
103. WALKER, MARGARET M. "The Socialized Recitation as a Means of Achieving History Objectives," *Historical Outlook*, XXIV (October, 1933), 324-26.  
A concrete example of how a teacher of American history employed the socialized-recitation technique in teaching the making of the American Constitution.
104. WEAVER, ROBERT B., and HILL, HOWARD C. *United States History by Units*. Chicago: W. F. Quarrie & Co., 1933. Pp. x+184.  
A volume designed to provide a complete guide for the study of United States history at the junior high school level in accordance with the unitary plan of organizing materials for teaching purposes.
105. WEBB, SIDNEY, and WEBB, BEATRICE. *Methods of Social Study*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1932. Pp. viii+264.  
A detailed account of the successful methods used by the Webbs in their forty-five years of investigation into social institutions.
106. WEBSTER, C. K. "The Study of International History," *History*, XVIII (July, 1933), 97-114.  
A learned discussion of the importance of international history and the available materials in the field.
107. WILSON, HOWARD E. *The Fusion of Social Studies in Junior High Schools*. Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. XXI. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1933. Pp. 212.  
A critical analysis of the fusion movement in the social studies. The practice, the theory, and the historical background of fusion are given special attention.
108. YOUNG, WESLEY G. "Pan-Pacific History at Stockton High School," *California Quarterly of Secondary Education*, VIII (April, 1933), 289-91.  
An account of six years of experimenting in the Stockton High School, Stockton, California, with a course entitled "Pan-Pacific History." The course has increasingly won the approval of the pupils.

## GEOGRAPHY

EDITH P. PARKER

109. BARNES, CHARLES C. "Geography in Detroit Senior High Schools," *Journal of Geography*, XXXII (March, 1933), 114-19.  
Reports the status of geography in the Detroit senior high schools and methods employed in the organization of recently adopted courses in social geography.
110. BYRNE, BRENDAN. "The Use of the Thought Question in Economic Geography," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XV (April, 1933), 40-42.  
Stresses the use of thought-provoking exercises in economic geography and illustrates seventeen types of such questions and directions.
111. FOSTER, ALICE, and CALLOWAY, KATHARINE L. "Geography in the Senior High School," *The Teaching of Geography*, pp. 287-306. Thirty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1933.  
States (1) the social import and the teaching objectives of a proposed two-year course in economic and political geography, (2) procedure in organization of content (illustrated by specific units), and (3) the permanent value of understandings, abilities, habits, and attitudes to be gained.
112. HARRIES, S. G. "Central School Geography," *Geography*, XVIII (June, 1933), 141-43.  
Outlines a program in geography for three or more years in "central" schools in England, which are attended by pupils of junior high school age.
113. JONES, E. WINIFRED. "Differences in the Geographical Work of Boys and Girls," *Geography*, XVIII (March, 1933), 37-54.  
Abstracts a Master's thesis (University of London) comprised of a detailed statistical study of differences in the work done in geography by boys and girls of secondary-school age.
114. STULL, D. "Values of Geography," *Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual Session of the Ohio State Educational Conference*, pp. 196-203. Ohio State University Bulletin, Vol. XXXVII, No. 3. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1932.  
Gives specific illustrations of the economic, social, and cultural values of geography as a secondary-school subject.
115. THRALLS, ZOE A. "Better Teaching of Geography in the Junior and Senior High School," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXII (April, 1933), 113-14.  
Describes desirable types of understandings to be gained from carefully-graded geographic material at four secondary-school levels.



116. THRALLS, ZOE A. "A Lesson in Economic Geography," *Journal of Business Education*, VIII (May, 1933), 21-22, 24, 26.  
Discusses the value of geographic training in the high school and presents a typical unit of work.
117. WOOD, L. R. "Agricultural Survey," *Geography*, XVIII (September, 1933), 219-24.  
Tells of field work done by secondary-school pupils in the Isle of Wight, includes the questionnaires used, and summarizes information thus collected.

SCIENCE<sup>1</sup>

## WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP

118. BARR, A. S. "The Scientific Study of Science Instruction," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIII (January, 1933), 63-72.  
Discusses scientific thinking and the development of that ability by the classroom teacher.
119. BEAUCHAMP, WILBUR L. *Instruction in Science*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 22. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. vi+64.  
Presents the results of a survey of courses of study and of classroom teaching.
120. BROWN, H. EMMETT. "Some Educational Implications of Recent Developments in Science," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIII (May, 1933), 490-505.  
Points out certain recent developments in science and shows how they have modified science-teaching at the secondary level. Suggests certain other ways in which this expanding scientific knowledge may affect education.
121. CARLETON, BLONDEL. "A Selected and Annotated Bibliography of Secondary Biology," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIII (March, 1933), 308-19.  
A bibliography on the various aspects and problems in the teaching of biology.
122. CARPENTER, HARRY A. "Results of a Three-Year Science Sequence in Junior High School Grades," *Science Education*, XVII (October, 1933), 183-92.  
Presents the results of an investigation dealing with the effect of instruction in general science on marks in physics and chemistry.
123. CLEMENSEN, JESSIE WILLIAMS. "Study Outlines in Physics—Construction and Experimental Evaluation," *Science Education*, XVI (December, 1932), 453-61.  
Presents the results of an investigation comparing the progress of pupils using study outlines with pupils using no study outlines.

<sup>1</sup> See also Items 443 and 449 in the November, 1933, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

124. CURTIS, FRANCIS D. "The Teaching of Science in the Secondary Schools of the North Central Association," *Science Education*, XVII (February, 1933), 1-11.  
Summarizes the results from a questionnaire sent to the science teachers in 2,167 accredited secondary schools. The data include grade placement of various subjects, salaries, teaching experience, pupil enrolment, etc.
125. DOWNING, ELLIOT R. "Methods versus the Mechanics of Instruction," *Science Education*, XVI (December, 1932), 468-71.  
Discusses the difference between measuring a pupil's progress in terms of the ordinary knowledge tests and measuring progress in terms of increased facility in some learning skill.
126. DOWNING, ELLIOT R. "Does Science Teach Scientific Thinking?" *Science Education*, XVII (April, 1933), 87-89.  
Presents the data secured on a test of ability to apply safeguards in scientific thinking in Grades VIII-XII.
127. EDMISTON, R. W. "Instructional Implications from a Study of Overlapings in Science," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVI (March, 1933), 501-7.  
Reports an investigation of the amount and the nature of overlapping in courses in science and presents a plan to eliminate this overlapping.
128. EDMISTON, R. W. "Results of Testing Laboratory Instruction," *Science Education*, XVII (October, 1933), 207-13.  
Describes laboratory experiments used to develop exactness in measurement, ability to apply knowledge, ability to devise laboratory procedures, and ability to complete the devised procedures.
129. HUNTER, GEORGE WILLIAM. "Science Sequence in the Junior and Senior High Schools," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIII (February, 1933), 214-23.  
Compares the science offering in secondary schools in the years 1908, 1923, and 1930.
130. HUNTER, GEORGE W., and EDINGER, OSCAR H., JR. "Methodology in Science at the Junior- and Senior-High-School Levels," *Science Education*, XVII (February, 1933), 35-41.  
Compares the methods employed in the high school as revealed through a questionnaire with opinions of members of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching.
131. HURD, A. W. "Appreciational Objectives in Science Teaching," *School and Society*, XXXVII (January 28, 1933), 124-26.  
Reports a study to determine the extent to which high-school pupils studying science are cognizant of certain appreciational concepts.
132. KIRKPATRICK, J. E. "A New Development in the Field of Objective Testing in Science," *Science Education*, XVII (April, 1933), 131-37.

- Discusses various types of objective tests and describes the use of validated test exercises covering the important ideas and concepts of a subject.
133. MAYFIELD, JOHN C. "The Systematic Development of Learning Units in General Science," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIII (January and February, 1933), 40-52, 153-64.  
Presents detailed directions for organizing and revising units in general science.
134. MONROE, GRAYDEN E. "How We May Meet Individual Differences in High School Chemistry," *Science Education*, XVI (December, 1932), 485-96.  
Presents a detailed treatment of one unit in chemistry showing how individual differences may be met.
135. OBOURN, ELLSWORTH S. "The Improvement of High School Physics Teaching by a Regularly Scheduled Unit Testing Program," *Science Education*, XVI (December, 1932), 497-505.  
Presents the disadvantage of testing programs administered at the end of a semester or year and advocates tests at the end of topics in order that weaknesses in learning may be corrected.
136. PARTRIDGE, W. A., and HARAP, HENRY. "Science for the Consumer," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIII (March, 1933), 266-74.  
A description of the procedure employed to discover the scientific terms occurring in publications of Consumers' Research Incorporated and a list of the items so discovered.
137. PIEPER, CHARLES J. "Research Studies Relating to the Teaching of Science," *Science Education*, XVII (April, 1933), 138-50.  
Presents a carefully selected list of references dealing with various aspects of the teaching of science.
138. TYLER, R. W. "Tests in Biology," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIII (June, 1933), 590-95.  
Summarizes the use of examinations and suggests how they may be formulated to test a wider range of objectives.
139. WEST TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, CLEVELAND, OHIO, PHYSICS DEPARTMENT. "The Laboratory," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIII (May, 1933), 519-23.  
Presents the general directions for the correct use of the laboratory and for laboratory study.

#### MATHEMATICS

ERNST R. BRESLICH

140. ADAMS, IMOGEN, and COLE, ROBERT D. "An Analysis of Algebra Workbooks," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVI (October, 1932), 116-31.  
Nine workbooks were examined and carefully evaluated. It was found that no single book offers practice in all the 109 different algebraic skills. There exists wide variation in emphasis on topics and in distribution of drill exercises.

141. BLANK, LAURA. "The Respective Abilities of Boys and Girls in Learning Geometry," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIII (February, 1933), 129-33.  
A review of recent studies in the problem of determining differences between boys and girls in interest and achievement in the study of geometry.
142. CARTER, WILLIAM RAY. "A Study of Certain Mathematical Abilities in High School Physics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXV (October, November, and December, 1932), 313-31, 388-419, 451-69.  
A test on mathematical concepts used in the study of physics was administered to 404 pupils studying physics in 13 Missouri high schools. A large percentage of pupils do not understand these concepts well enough to apply them in physics. It is felt that these understandings are sufficiently related to success in physics to justify the use of the test in predicting achievement in that field.
143. DURELL, FLETCHER, and DURELL, THOMAS J. "Getting the Most out of Objective Tests in Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXV (November, 1932), 377-87.  
A critical discussion of the use of four types of objective tests in the teaching of mathematics.
144. FRANZÉN, CARL G. F. "Improvement Sheet for Algebra," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (December, 1932), 939-43.  
The improvement sheet is designed as a device with which teachers of algebra may check their work. Thirty-four desirable teaching activities and thirty-five pupil activities are listed. A bibliography suggests reading material related to these activities.
145. FRANZÉN, CARL G. F. "Improvement Sheet for Plane Geometry," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIII (March, 1933), 293-96.  
A rating sheet for teachers of plane geometry is devised, which contains about thirty items on teacher activity and thirty on pupil activity. Reading references relating to nearly half of the activities are given for the benefit of the teacher seeking improvement.
146. GADSKÉ, RICHARD EDW. "A Comparison of Two Methods of Teaching First Year High School Algebra," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIII (June, 1933), 635-40.  
Two groups of pupils were taught by different methods. In one, progress was individual in each unit; in the other, pupils progressed as a group. Results favor the first method.
147. HITCHCOCK, C. C. "Fitting Ninth Grade Mathematics to the Needs and Abilities of Pupils," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XVIII (September, 1932), 462-65.  
Pupils were permitted to study general mathematics instead of straight algebra courses. This work was better adapted to the individual needs, and fewer pupils failed in the course than in algebra.

148. JOHNSON, J. T. "Adapting Instructional Material to Individual Differences in Learning," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXVI (April, 1933), 193-99.  
A description of a plan of differentiating subject matter into three levels of difficulty for teaching purposes. Some advantages of the plan are listed.
149. LIDE, EDWIN S. *Instruction in Mathematics*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 23. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. vi+72.  
The investigation aims to determine practices in the teaching of mathematics in a selected group of schools doing outstanding work in the field. Courses of study were examined as to objectives, procedures, selection and organization of materials, tests, provisions for individual differences, and mechanical makeup. Visits were made to outstanding schools, and conferences were held with teachers. The chapters reporting the findings are entitled: "Mathematics in Junior High School Grades," "Mathematics in Senior High School Grades," and "Influences on the Production and Use of Courses of Study."
150. LUECK, WILLIAM R. "How Much Arithmetic and Algebra Do Students of First Year College Physics Really Know?" *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (December, 1932), 998-1005.  
Tests in arithmetic and algebra were administered to 280 students in first-year college physics. Of this group 120 students were also taking college mathematics. It was found that in algebraic achievement only 27 per cent exceeded the norm of high-school pupils in first-year algebra, 30 per cent reached or exceeded the norm in arithmetic for lower eighth-grade pupils, and one-fifth reached or exceeded the norm in arithmetic for the upper-eighth grade. The better results in algebra were obtained by those who took college mathematics, but the superiority in arithmetic was less marked.
151. MACRAE, MARGARET, and UHL, WILLIS L. "Types of Errors and Remedial Work in the Fundamental Processes of Algebra," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVI (September, 1932), 12-21.  
Tests on the four fundamental processes of algebra were given to 104 pupils, and the errors were classified accordingly. The tests were followed by remedial treatment. Remedial work was most difficult with the processes of multiplication and division.
152. ORLEANS, JOSEPH B., and ORLEANS, JACOB S. "Teaching and Learning," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXVI (March, 1933), 133-39.  
A study to determine how well pupils learn mathematics without being taught. A series of printed lessons followed by tests in algebra and geometry was given to a group of pupils before they received any instruction in the subjects from a teacher. The tests were again administered after six weeks of instruction. The gains were surprisingly low and show that pupils learn far less from instruction than they are capable of learning by themselves.
153. RUDMAN, BARNET. "Related Mathematics in the Co-operative Sheet Metal Course," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXII (October, 1932), 725-35.

An outline of the mathematics needed in a four-year sheet-metal course in which mathematics is taught incidentally to the projects in sheet-metal work.

154. *The Teaching of Mathematics in the Secondary School*. Eighth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. Pp. 264.

Presents certain important phases of the teaching of mathematics. The titles of the six chapters of the yearbook are: chapter i, "Articulation of Junior and Senior High School Mathematics"; chapter ii, "A Summary of Some Scientific Investigations of the Teaching of High School Mathematics"; chapter iii, "The Teaching of Intuitive Geometry"; chapter iv, "Coherence and Diversity in Secondary Mathematics"; chapter v, "The Mathematical Collection"; and chapter vi, "Units of Instruction in Secondary Mathematics."

155. WHITCRAFT, L. H. "The Influence of College Entrance Examinations on the Teaching of Secondary Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXVI (May, 1933), 257-70.

Data regarding the influence of the College Entrance Examination Board on secondary-school mathematics were gathered from heads of departments, teachers of mathematics, superintendents, authors of textbooks, courses of study, and prominent educators. They show decided influence. The influence has been such as to retard progress in the teaching of mathematics.

156. WOOD, E. R. *The Ohio Survey of Elementary Mathematics: A Report on the Degree of Mastery of the Needed Elementary Tools of Mathematics*. Bulletin No. 24. Columbus, Ohio: State Department of Education. Pp. 82.

A report of the results obtained with the Ohio Every Pupil Mathematics Tests. Common errors are listed, and the results of pupils of three levels of ability are compared.

#### FOREIGN LANGUAGE

FRANCIS F. POWERS

University of Washington

157. AMNER, F. DEWEY. "Advantages and Difficulties of Collateral Reading," *Modern Language Journal*, XVII (May, 1933), 567-74.

A keener sense of internationalism, a consciousness of ability to read a foreign language, and a development of a reading attitude are several of the most advantageous results of collateral reading. The difficulties center around the problem of securing suitable material and of providing adequately for student reports.

158. BAGSTER-COLLINS, E. W. "Observations on Reading," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XV (June, 1933), 5-13.

An address given before the chairmen of modern-language departments in the high schools of New York City, March 23, 1933. The author stresses direct reading as the goal of modern-language courses. Special attention is given to the factor of gradation in the organization of the reading course.

159. BEMENT, NEWTON S., and SMITH, EVELYN M. "Standardizing French Vocabulary for Beginners," *Modern Language Journal*, XVII (May, 1933), 579-91.

An attempt to solve the problem of standardization of vocabularies in text-books for beginners by presenting a basic list compiled from ten beginning French books. The list is divided into groups comprising (1) the first five hundred words, (2) the second five hundred words, (3) idiomatic and constructional extensions of the first thousand words, and (4) supplementary list.

160. CHEYDLEUR, F. D. "An Experiment in Adult Learning of French at the Madison, Wisconsin, Vocational School," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVI (December, 1932), 259-75.

In this study to ascertain whether adults can learn a foreign language more or less thoroughly than students of average school or college age when subjected to the same amount of instruction, same methods, same teacher, and same examinations, it was found that 64 per cent of the adults did as well as the highest 25 per cent of the high-school pupils and that 90 per cent of them did as well as the upper half of the high-school pupils of the country.

161. EDDY, HELEN M. *Instruction in Foreign Languages*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 24. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. vi+62.

An excellent compilation of helpful material for those interested in understanding the present status of both modern and ancient foreign languages. There is an especially valuable section on general-language courses. This bulletin will be of great assistance to teachers concerned with the improvement of the curriculum in foreign language.

162. GAENSSLE, CARL. "How Dead Is Latin?" *Classical Journal*, XXVIII (April, 1933), 497-504.

When a language gives life to past figures and events, when it quickens the mental activity of present generations and broadens their intellectual horizons, when it, at the same time, contributes materially to the understanding of one's own language—then, surely, it cannot be called "dead."

163. GULLETTE, CAMERON C. "Some Tricks of the Trade," *Modern Language Journal*, XVII (April, 1933), 499-502.

Suggestions of methods to create the surprise element and thus make pupils more alert during recitations.

164. HUTCHINSON, MARK E. "Relative Time Given by High-School Students to 'English into Latin' and 'Latin into English,'" *School and Society*, XXXVII (March 11, 1933), 335-36.

A short report of a survey made of ten high schools to determine the amount of time spent on Latin composition as compared with Latin translation. The author believes that the value of Latin composition cannot really be discovered until an experiment is made comparing classes which use it with those which do not.



165. JOHNSON, LAURA; HINDERMAN, ROY A.; and RYAN, H. H. "Language Transfer," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVI (April, 1933), 579-84. Study made in the University of Wisconsin High School to test transfer of training in one or more foreign languages to the ability to get meaning from an unfamiliar language. Results seem to indicate that the gain from language-study is more in the direction of vocabulary than in that of general interpretative ability.
166. KAULFERS, WALTER V. "Practical Techniques for Testing Comprehension in Extensive Reading," *Modern Language Journal*, XVII (February, 1933), 321-27.  
In the words of the author: "An outline of the criteria of construction, and methods of administration and scoring, of practical five- to ten-minute 'citation tests,' applicable to classes in extensive reading for comprehension."
167. KAULFERS, WALTER V. "Breaking the Foreign Language Goose Step," *Education*, LIII (March, 1933), 440-44.  
A comparatively detailed plan concerned with providing for individual differences in the foreign-language class. Emphasizes the use of "measurable achievement" rather than "time-serving" as the basis of grading and promotion.
168. LAND, GEORGE A. "The Effect of the Classical Investigation upon Latin Courses in Schools Preparing for College," *Classical Journal*, XXVIII (December, 1932), 179-86.  
The Classical Investigation (1924) recommended a reduction in the amount of Latin reading required of preparatory-school pupils. The author investigates the extent to which the schools have changed their courses to conform to the suggestions of the Classical Investigation and whether the results have been better where a change has been made.
169. PETERS, EMMA. "Relation of Tests to Improvement of Instruction," *Classical Journal*, XXVIII (December, 1932), 187-96.  
A close scrutiny of published prognostic, achievement, and diagnostic tests reveals that they are far from being panaceas for the ills in modern-language-teaching. Nevertheless, they, and teacher-made tests as well, have important values for remedial teaching.
170. PETERS, MARY ELEANOR. "The Value of Modern Language Study," *Modern Language Forum*, XVIII (April, 1933), 28-32.  
The writer points out that our practical age must not belittle the so-called "purely cultural" subjects, such as modern languages, for they definitely contribute to the educational ideal of preparing youth for citizenship and for such careers as journalism, engineering, diplomacy, and others.
171. SARAFIAN, K. A. "What Is the Matter with the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages?" *School and Society*, XXXVII (May 13, 1933), 621-23.  
Because of the fact that modern foreign languages continue to gain in importance, the teacher should not stress unduly the science of the language but rather give increased attention to the psychological steps involved.

172. SPARKMAN, COLLEY F. "Oral Work in Recognition-Reading Training," *Modern Language Forum*, XVIII (April, 1933), 8-13.  
An attempt to combine the best qualities of oral work and adequate reading knowledge. Includes examples of techniques and drills to improve aural practice and thus attain the desired objectives.
173. TOMSON, LENA B. "Latin: A College Leaven," *Classical Journal*, XXVIII (April, 1933), 523-29.  
Suggests giving college students in Latin a knowledge of Roman background through extensive English reading and stresses the importance of drill on forms and syntax in college Latin classes designed for students who have had no foreign language in high school.
174. VAIL, CURTIS C. D. "Modern Language Objectives," *Modern Language Journal*, XVII (January, 1933), 249-59.  
A plea for objectives which are concrete and definitely attainable. A discussion of the oral objective versus the reading objective brings out the point that the former, when taught by the purely oral method, is practically impossible of attainment in the two-year high-school course and therefore should be left to the college and university.
175. WENG, F. H. "Objectives in the Teaching of Latin and Its Relation to Other Subjects in the Curriculum," *Teachers College Journal*, IV (May, 1933), 257-59, 264.  
Latin may be valuable in units of as little as one year, but during that time the subject should be correlated with English and the pupil should attain a sympathetic understanding of Roman civilization.
176. YOUNG, GRACE P. "Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology in America for 1932," *Modern Language Journal*, XVII (May, 1933), 600-615.  
An annotated bibliography of references classified according to the periodicals in which they appear.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*A comparison of national systems of education.*—The school as an agency of social direction and control is always very sensitive to those political, social, economic, and cultural forces which determine the pattern of a people's institutional life. Inasmuch as the school is the most effective agency which society employs in implementing its policies, it necessarily follows that any fundamental change in the social order is reflected more or less immediately and directly in both educational theory and in educational practice. The truth of the foregoing statements is borne out by the changes which have taken place in education in the major countries of Europe and in the United States during the past two decades. Since the World War national systems of education have been required to accommodate themselves to new forms of political control, to new types of social and economic organization, and to changing traditions and attitudes.

It is against this background of institutional change that the author of a recent volume<sup>1</sup> describes, compares, and contrasts the educational systems of six of the leading nations of the world—England, France, Germany, Italy, Russia, and the United States. A unique feature of the book is its organization. Instead of treating each country separately, as is commonly done in studies of comparative education, the author selects certain significant topics, such as administration, secondary education, and the like, and treats these in relation to each of the several countries included in the study. This type of organization facilitates comparison and contrast of educational policies and practices without serious inconvenience to the reader who may wish to confine his attention to the educational system of one country alone. The general content of the volume is reflected in the chapter headings: "Education and Nationalism," "Education and National Character," "The State and Education," "The Organization of National Systems of Education," "Administration of Education," "Elementary Education," "The Preparation of Elementary School Teachers," "Secondary Education," "The Preparation of Secondary School Teachers," and "Summary and Conclusion."

This book is by far the most significant contribution that has yet been made

<sup>1</sup> I. L. Kandel, *Comparative Education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1933. Pp. xxvi+922. \$4.00.

in the field of comparative education. It does a number of things, and it does them well: (1) It relates educational systems to the social orders out of which they developed and by which they have been conditioned. (2) It provides sufficient historical background to make recent changes and present conditions intelligible. (3) It indicates clearly the significant educational trends in Europe and in the United States during the past few decades. (4) It describes with particular clarity educational systems as they exist at present. (5) By comparison and contrast, it reveals those differences and distinctions which inevitably grow out of different social and cultural patterns.

Although designed primarily as a textbook for courses in comparative education, this volume will no doubt find wide use by students of the history of education and by others desiring a comprehensive view of recent social and educational change.

NEWTON EDWARDS

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*The high-school population in the South.*—A recent monograph<sup>1</sup> reports a comprehensive investigation and analysis of the socio-economic status of the secondary-school population in eleven southern states. A number of studies similar in character have been made in much more restricted areas and with smaller groups. None of these has, however, attempted a systematic analysis of this type for an entire section of the country.

The author constructed a questionnaire based on questionnaires used in three similar studies and on an analysis of fifty-seven rating blanks containing items of a social nature. This questionnaire was filled out by more than twenty thousand pupils in twenty-one public high schools. These schools include all those that are members of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in one representative city in each of the eleven states. The cities are: Montgomery, Alabama; Jacksonville, Florida; Atlanta, Georgia; Lexington, Kentucky; New Orleans, Louisiana; Jackson, Mississippi; Winston-Salem, North Carolina; Columbia, South Carolina; Nashville, Tennessee; Beaumont, Texas; and Norfolk, Virginia. The data collected are concerned predominantly with the following considerations: the pupil's course and grade in school; his vocational activities outside the school and his educational and vocational plans; the type of home from which he comes, as shown by such matters as presence or absence of telephone, radio, automobile, and servants; and the birthplace, the occupation, and the education of the father and of the mother. These data are classified, tabulated, and reduced to percentages in each case by class in school, and in some instances subclassified by city. The results are compared, where

<sup>1</sup> Floyd Jordan, *The Social Composition of the Secondary Schools of the Southern States*. Contributions to Education Published under the Direction of George Peabody College for Teachers, No. 108. Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1933. Pp. xiv+102.

comparisons are possible, with the findings of four similar studies based on pupils in the secondary schools in other parts of the country.

In general, the findings are in rather close agreement with those of earlier studies. They differ from the earlier results in the following respects: (1) In the southern states the proportion of the fathers engaged in agricultural pursuits is much greater, and the proportion engaged in manufacturing and mechanical industries is correspondingly smaller. (2) The proportion of high-school pupils in these states who plan to enter college is lower than that found in several similar studies. (3) The proportion of the parents of these pupils who are native born is substantially larger. (4) The proportion of parents reported by pupils in this study as secondary-school and college graduates is markedly higher. (5) The proportion of the families represented here who employ servants in the home is higher. (6) The proportions of families having telephones, radios, and automobiles, respectively, are highest in this study.

This investigation is outstanding for its comprehensiveness, with respect both to geographical area covered and to completeness of information collected. It should provide a useful body of data for educators, especially in the southern states, for some time to come. It is a carefully planned and well-executed investigation. The author exhibits a careful, conservative attitude, remaining at all times within the facts collected. If the study has shortcomings, they are omissive rather than overt. The author exhibits a slight tendency toward an uncritical acceptance of reported data as established facts and, in so doing, misses occasional opportunities for thoughtful discussions of his findings and of certain inconsistencies. To cite one example, it seems rather illogical that this study should report both one of the lowest expectations of entrance to college among the pupils and at the same time the highest proportions of college graduates among the parents. The percentages of parents reported as college graduates in this study (mothers, 10.7 per cent; fathers, 13.9 per cent) are exceptionally high as compared with those found in any other similar study or with those for the country as a whole.

In reading studies of this type, one is continually beset with questions regarding the validity of the data reported by the pupils. The obvious temptation to make personal situations and the social and the economic conditions of the home appear in the best possible light must surely color the reports of some. A careful study of the accuracy of pupils' answers to questions of this nature does not seem impossible; yet no such investigations have reported any thorough attempts to make an analysis of this kind. It is probably unnecessary to add that, unless tendencies to "keep up with the Joneses" are stronger in the South than elsewhere, the present study is no more subject to this criticism than are the others of similar types.

VICTOR H. NOLL

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*A workbook in secondary-school teaching.*—A workbook<sup>1</sup> presenting a course in secondary-school teaching is organized into thirty-four learning units. In reviewing the book, one might consider the intrinsic worth of the *subject matter* included in the units, or the *pattern* according to which the units have been constructed, or both. Evaluation from the standpoint of subject matter must here be waived with the statement that intrinsically the assignments seem to deal with vital aspects of a course in secondary-school teaching and to merit examination by those interested in building such a course. The pattern deserves more extended comment since many university teachers are interested in organizing their courses on the unit basis and so far a generally acceptable type of organization has not evolved.

In the workbook under discussion the units (many would prefer to call them guide sheets or unit assignments) are constructed according to a definite pattern, consisting of five parts: (1) "Viewpoint," (2) "Student's Objectives," (3) "Learning Exercises," (4) "References," and (5) "Outcome." The "Viewpoint" is intended to give the student at once the modern attitude toward the problem to be studied. Under "Student's Objectives" one general objective is followed by several specific objectives. Each objective is phrased to indicate an ability, knowledge, understanding, or skill to be acquired. Spaces are provided wherein the student may write additional objectives. The "Learning Exercises" suggest activities to be performed by the student. These exercises are listed under four headings, namely, (1) "Relating One's Own Experience to the Problem," (2) "For Mastery of the References Pertaining to the Problem," (3) "Applying the Problem to Secondary-School Subjects," and (4) "For Further Study." Spaces are provided wherein the student may write additional exercises. The "References" are listed under each unit by code numbers which direct the student to the general bibliography. Occasionally additional references are given by title under units to which they may peculiarly apply. The "Outcome" is a summarization of what the student should have attained as a result of his work with the unit.

Concerning the construction of a unit assignment after the pattern briefly described, the following comments seem pertinent. First, the formulation of a point of view for the student at the outset of his work on a unit may seriously interfere with an open-minded approach to the unit. In his work with the learning exercises the student will encounter many points of view. These conflicting points of view should force him to think his way through to a point of view of his own. His thinking is likely to be less biased if he approaches the unit without official information that a certain point of view represents the "modern attitude" toward the question. Second, in a guide sheet intended for the student's use, the student's objectives are likely to be more challenging if stated as problems or questions rather than as affirmations. Third, the learning exercises and

<sup>1</sup> J. G. Umstattd, *Learning Units in Secondary School Teaching*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Perine Book Co., 1933. Pp. 77.

references are likely to be more effective if organized under the appropriate problems or questions rather than under the unit as a whole. Fourth, the guide sheet probably should not furnish the student with a ready-made statement of the outcome. Good teaching procedure would seem to require him to make his own formulation independent of undue suggestion. This statement does not imply that the instructor should not prepare a careful formulation of the desired outcome of each assignment on which the student works, but such a formulation belongs in the teacher's manual or notebook, not in the guide sheet. Moreover, such outcomes should be stated much more definitively and comprehensively than they are expressed in the guide sheets under discussion.

In the opinion of the reviewer, a workbook inevitably should be accompanied by a teacher's manual. The teacher's manual should contain those materials which are essential to good teaching by means of the unit assignment but which have no place whatsoever in the guide sheet or unit assignment furnished the student. In the present instance the teacher's manual might contain such items as "Viewpoint" and "Outcome," as well as tests which had been carefully worked out and by means of which the instructor might discover the extent to which the student had mastered the unit.

ROY O. BILLETT

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*Measuring achievement in drawing.*—Considerable controversy exists at the present time with regard to the effectiveness of tests and measurements in art. A small group of authorities contend that testing in this field cannot be accomplished with any reliability whatever. It is undoubtedly true that certain aspects of art cannot be included in any measuring program which up to the present time has been devised. Emotions and emotional responses in the presence of beauty do not lend themselves to measurement by existing procedures, and creativity is another aspect of art presenting difficulties when reliable measurements are desired.

Measurement of techniques and skills; of discriminating judgment in matters of art; of knowledge about art; and, to a certain extent, of art appreciations has been accomplished with considerable success. An experiment in measuring and scoring achievement in free-hand drawing in elementary schools and high schools has been reported in the series of Johns Hopkins University Studies in Education.<sup>1</sup>

The monograph presents a measuring scale for each of the following themes: illustration, poster, border, and structural design. The factors of design and composition provide the criteria for organizing the scoring sheets. The aesthetic principles of balance, rhythm, emphasis, opposition, and unity are also involved in the rating scheme employed.

<sup>1</sup> Linus Ward Kline and Gertrude L. Carey, *A Measuring Scale for Free-Hand Drawing: Part II, Design and Composition*. Johns Hopkins University Studies in Education, No. 5. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1933. Pp. 58+4 folders. \$1.75.



The text of the monograph is divided into four chapters. The first chapter discusses the position of drawing in public education and outlines sources and methods used in the investigation recorded. Chapter ii gives details of the plan and the methods of selecting, grouping, and scoring the drawings. Chapter iii deals with computing scale values and use of the scale. Chapter iv presents a brief and incomplete discussion of the function and the uses of scales in art.

An abbreviated bibliography presenting references to some of the data available on tests and measurements in art concludes the fifty-eight pages of the publication.

A great deal may be said both pro and con with regard to the validity and the practical use of such standardized scales in measuring achievement in drawing. The important thing in the present stage of the testing movement in art is to make progress in this little-explored subject. Any conscientious and carefully organized effort comprises a step forward and adds encouragement to the research student in this field.

WILLIAM G. WHITFORD

*Economics for the senior high school.*—The current dilemma has impressed many with the importance of widespread economic education. With the increasing emphasis given to economics as a secondary-school subject, there can be no doubt that numerous textbooks will inevitably be produced, many of which will represent considerable improvement over previous works. The book under consideration,<sup>1</sup> while it presents the standard point of view in its exposition of the major divisions of economics, is a superior contribution in the writing of such textbooks.

The textbook, designed for senior high school use, covers the traditional segments of the field with satisfactory thoroughness. The scope of economics, production, exchange, distribution, consumption, public finance, and problems of economic organization and change are treated with ample detail. Problems in each chapter are abundant and are classified for school use in terms of questions of understanding, problems of application, and investigational activities. The materials for investigational activity are well chosen and should be extremely serviceable to the classroom teacher. Bibliographical materials are included with each chapter, and an extended list of references, almost too lengthy, appears at the end of the book.

While the book is an improvement over earlier textbooks, it presents no distinctive contribution in terms of the reorganization of instruction in the field. The materials and divisions are quite the usual ones, and the weaknesses of an encyclopedic treatment of most of the major problems in economics necessarily arise when the heavy task of completeness is undertaken. In general, the result has been a highly impersonal teaching of the subject, and impersonal the teaching will remain so long as textbooks are written as though high-school pupils

<sup>1</sup> Harley L. Lutz, Edmund W. Foote, and Benjamin F. Stanton, *A New Introduction to Economics*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1933. Pp. xxxii+512. \$1.60.

were academic bystanders. Even though the materials on consumption are much more extended than in most books, the pupil is likely to remain untouched when authors are obligated to be abstract. Discussions concerning standards of living or analyses of Engel's law do not tend to reduce the individual consumer's gullibility.

As in many other books, exchange and production are divided into separate units. From the standpoint of good instructional organization, there is a danger that the pupil may get the impression that the exchange mechanism and the productive system exist separately in the economic order. One of the real sources of economic illiteracy among bankers as well as among cab-drivers arises at this very juncture. Although the authors of this textbook recognize this interdependence at various points, the organization of the book would not make the relation clear to the high-school youngster. If behavior change and understanding with respect to a few basic economic generalizations for permanent retention are the results sought by the teacher from any textbook in economics, the search will be in vain, for secondary-school textbook-writing in this field has not evolved to that high place. The only available materials are books which deal with "principles" of economics and information concerning general economic problems.

The reviewer does not wish to overlook the many excellencies of the textbook considered. It is inclusive; it is well written; it is intellectually respectable and is not written "down" to the pupil; and it is not controversial. That it will give the pupil any long-time guide for his personal economic behavior is doubted, since many generations of secondary-school and college students have been exposed to similar systematic treatments and the results are only too well known.

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H. G. SHIELDS

*Mechanical drawing and learning.*—From the point of view of general observation, mechanical drawing is looked on as one of the fundamental industrial arts—in fact, in most instances as the foundation for all the others. In spite of the numberless and often rapid changes in the processes and the products of industry, the principles underlying the construction and production of mechanical drawing have remained practically unchanged for a sufficient length of time that they may be considered more or less permanently established. To one who has learned these principles the application becomes somewhat of a mechanical process, and the industrial world recognizes, above all else, the finished drawing. Because of this fact, countless efforts to train new draftsmen have consisted largely in the reproduction of mechanical processes and the copying or even the tracing of identical lines, signs, and symbols originally produced through someone else's thinking.

Improvement in mechanical drawing courses cannot come, to any appreciable extent, from the modification of subject matter itself but must rather consist in the methods used to create a succession of learning situations. Hoelscher and

Mays<sup>1</sup> have presented the subject from this standpoint. The content of their book is divided into two parts of approximately equal length, and thus fits conveniently into the average school schedule of a first and a second semester.

Part I covers the information and the practice necessary for the beginner in becoming familiar with (1) instruments and their uses; (2) standard usage in the matter of lines, lettering, projections, and interpretation; (3) working drawings; (4) free-hand and mechanical sketching; and (5) the mechanical processes of tracing and blue-printing. Simple and explicit directions are given for each new phase of performance, and the execution of practice is carried along coincident with the development of the subject. Printed matter is profusely interspersed with illustrations, including the reproduction of photographs and drawings. There is a conspicuous absence of any series of plates set forth to scale.

Part II is to a certain extent an application of the information, principles, and practices covered in Part I. In addition, there is injected an element of intricacy and scientific calculation which carries the work positively forward. The major divisions deal with: (1) geometric construction; (2) auxiliary views; (3) screws and threads; (4) sections; (5) building plans, elevations, and construction; and (6) sepia prints. Instructions given throughout Part II assume familiarity with the content of Part I, but new material presented possesses the same sort of definiteness appearing earlier. The use of frequent illustration is continued as an effective aid to printed information. Throughout both sections questions covering minor subdivisions of the subject are presented periodically.

The volume reveals a clear insight into the principles of learning mechanical drawing—a subject too often handled with an utter disregard of any learning principles. The various items of information presented and developed are put to work immediately following the presentation, in contrast to the practice of placing information in one part of the book and execution of work in another. Development in all instances proceeds from the known to the unknown and from the simple to the complex. The questions are so framed as to assist the learner to review the subject matter and interpret it in terms different from those used in the book rather than to suggest parrot-like answers.

The most distinctive and valuable feature of the whole work lies in the relation between the organization of material and the assignment of work to the learner. On the one hand, technical content is most meticulously preserved, and, on the other hand, principles of learning are cleverly interwoven throughout. The so-called "teacher" or the student looking for a set of plates to be copied will be doomed to disappointment; but the teacher seeking to set up a real learning situation and the learner wishing to secure a knowledge of the subject as well as ability to handle the instruments will find a decidedly constructive aid to learning.

DEAN M. SCHWEICKHARD

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<sup>1</sup> Randolph Philip Hoelscher and Arthur Beverly Mays, *Basic Units in Mechanical Drawing*, Book I. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1933. Pp. viii + 290. \$1.60.

*American history for junior high school grades.*—A new textbook in American history<sup>1</sup> resembles many other recent textbooks in the field designed for use in the seventh and the eighth grades in that it possesses some of the characteristics of a widely expanded syllabus. The book is composed of nine parts and thirty-six chapters. The study helps placed at the end of each chapter reflect the modern point of view with regard to methods of teaching. Each section includes a group of questions to be answered, suggested subjects for floor talks, projects involving map-drawing, and questions on maps. This last most desirable item is one of the ways in which this textbook differs from most other textbooks. Geographical information fundamental to an understanding of history is constantly in need of emphasis because most pupils are weak in this respect. Projects calling for tabulations appear in several places. Each chapter closes with a brief biography. At the end of each chapter there is also to be found a section entitled "Terms To Know," including about a dozen of the more difficult words selected from the text of the preceding chapter. It is questionable whether a suggestion as simple as this should be used frequently.

At the beginning of each section of the book appears a brief preview of the entire unit—a most desirable feature. At the beginning of each part has also been placed a graph designed to make clear the time relations of various events taking place during the unit of the work being studied and also the time relations of this unit to the whole field of American history. In some respects these graphs could be greatly improved, and in a few respects they are misleading. For example, the name of Thomas Jefferson is placed opposite the Louisiana Purchase, although the Embargo Act is just as typically a part of Jeffersonian policy. The name of Alexander Hamilton is associated with the First United States Bank, but nearby the name of Whitney is associated with the Jay Treaty, although the term cotton gin is not far away. The name of Webster appears in connection with the year 1830, whereas that particular year is no more significant in connection with the career of Webster than several other occasions.

The literary style of *A History of American Progress* is excellent. Narration is used to a large extent, though more would be desirable. Nevertheless, the lists of suggested readings will supply the interesting details which are usually found if history is treated as a narrative.

During the last twenty-five years historical research has brought forward many new points of view concerning the interpretation of history. It is unfortunate that the authors of this textbook have not included some of these new points of view in their book. There is no indication of the very favorable conclusion which has now been reached concerning the position of Andrew Johnson. The new interpretations of the character of James K. Polk and the causes of the Mexican War, resulting from the researches of Justin H. Smith, are omitted. With regard to the World War the following statement appears: "... most Americans looked upon the conflict as a war between democracy and autocracy . . ." (p. 462). Undoubtedly, most Americans so believed at the time, but no-

<sup>1</sup> Fremont P. Wirth and Waddy Thompson, *A History of American Progress*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1933. Pp. viii+522+xxxii. \$1.52.

body holds such a point of view today. Without further explanation, the pupil is likely to regard this statement as still true. These criticisms apply not only to this book but to most textbooks in history.

On the whole, this volume is a very useful textbook, well written, well organized, with many useful helps for the teacher. The illustrations are most interesting, the majority being new. The format is excellent and very creditable to the publishers.

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D. S. BRAINARD

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*Materials for a course in the use of correct English in business.*—While it is obvious that good English is good English regardless of the type of writing to which applied, it is equally true that, to be correct and effective, language and style must be adapted to the specific purposes for which they are to be used. That there is a specialized use of English in business is thus the justification for the teaching of business English.

Although there are at least a dozen fairly recent textbooks in business English for secondary schools, a new book is welcomed by teachers of this subject because of the necessity for the continuous adaptation of courses to changing business customs and conditions. Then, too, some of the textbooks are concerned chiefly with exercises in grammatical usage, while others deal almost exclusively with business letters. A book<sup>1</sup> combining drill in grammatical usage, punctuation, and spelling with sections on business letters has appeared, representing the collaboration of three authors, two of whom have written earlier books in this field.

In this book the study of business English is introduced to the pupils through quotations, which are identified as various types of writing. The characteristics of language and style suited to each type are pointed out, and the specific characteristics of *business* English are then summarized. The first chapter closes with a discussion which serves to orient the pupils with regard to the relation of this subject to their lives and plans. Chapters on grammar, punctuation, and spelling are followed by a chapter presenting the basic principles of effective writing. In the next eight chapters ten types of business letters are treated. The following topics are covered in another group of chapters: memorandums and intramural correspondence, advertisements, reports and summaries, and telegraphic messages. A final chapter presents tests and examinations in business English.

The authors of this book subscribe strongly to the "learning-by-doing" theory in that they have included 435 exercises and 64 problems in the 424 pages of text material. This wealth of projects and problems will enable the teacher to provide for the individual interests and abilities represented in his class. The

<sup>1</sup> Roy Davis, Clarence H. Lingham, and William H. Stone, *Modern Business English*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1933. Pp. viii+476. \$1.32.

fact that the application of good English to business situations includes speaking and reading as well as writing activities is recognized through the inclusion of many oral exercises and a supplementary reading list. Drill on grammatical usage, punctuation, and spelling is wisely included, as young people just out of high school rarely have opportunity to prove their ability to plan and compose various forms of business writing until they have demonstrated a mastery of these tools of expression. At first glance, the reader may regret the inclusion of exercises in which incorrect forms of grammatical usage and spelling are given because of the possibility that the pupil may remember the incorrect forms; but, at second glance, he notes that the incorrect form is always carefully indicated by variation in size of type.

The teacher who has been "lecturing" on business English to pupils in secondary schools or who has been using textbooks emphasizing theory will find that a book such as this will change his business English class from a "listening" to a "doing" group.

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*Guidance on the teaching of grammar.*—"Let the large and ultimate ends of language shine through and transform your treatment of the minuter elements of language," advised an orator who addressed the New England Association of Teachers of English in 1908, as quoted by C. H. Ward in his new book.<sup>1</sup> Mr. Ward, however, subscribes to no such hazy program but offers an effective plan for teaching grammar which he is convinced will result in better composition. English teachers disagree on grammatical technique. How much grammar? What grammar? What order of presentation is effective? Functional grammar is approved, but authorities define the term variously. Thirty-five years of teaching and learning have given Mr. Ward a philosophy for the teaching of grammar. His book is for the college student and gives invaluable guidance to the person majoring in English—the prospective teacher of English. Teachers of methods in English will do well to include it in their bibliographies. Effective writing demands a knowledge of sentences, and an adequate teaching program based on sentence study is provided. For those who agree with the instructors in Freshman English at the University of Wisconsin that "direct technical instruction in English is impracticable except upon the basis of a genuine familiarity with the elementary facts of English grammar" (quoted by Ward on page 7), this book offers expert help.

The belief that syntax is a device for improving sentence structure determines the book's organization. Parts I and II treat the elements of the sentence, the way of gaining variety in sentence structure, and the relation between good sentences and effective writing. A formal classification of principles, together

<sup>1</sup> C. H. Ward, *Grammar for Composition*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1933. Pp. xiv+450. \$1.40.

with exercise material, follows. The Table of Contents is full and explicit, and a detailed index allows a variety of uses. Discarding the traditional order, Mr. Ward gives a natural teaching order. Verbs, essential to the sentence, are first taught. Nouns and pronouns follow as the subjects of verbs. Then follow modifiers of the subject and the verb, adjectives and adverbs. One recognizes the thoughtful and resourceful teacher in these chapters.

In harmony with the current interest in mass education, Mr. Ward plans his teaching program for the rank and file of the school population, not for those whose home background and intellectual interests make instruction in grammar of lesser importance. Primary emphasis is on sentence sense; verbs, pronouns and nouns, adjectives and adverbs are given much space. Thought relationships are urged. Actual language situations and current writings furnish examples, and sentences from the classics are dropped.

With the linguists, Mr. Ward commits himself to a search for the facts of usage rather than a dependence on the logic of grammar. He quotes such authorities as Sir Gilbert Murray, Jespersen, Krapp, and the *Oxford Dictionary*. His discussions on debatable points are of especial interest to the student. These are some of the helpful features of this stimulating book. The young teacher will need help in fitting any program of grammar to the already overcrowded curriculum, but this admirable book offers specific guidance.

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### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- Education on the Air*. Fourth Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio. Edited by Josephine H. MacLatchy. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1933. Pp. viii+380. \$3.00.
- GARRISON, NOBLE LEE. *The Technique and Administration of Teaching*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1933. Pp. xiv+594.
- KAWIN, ETHEL. *Children of Preschool Age: Studies in Socio-Economic Status, Social Adjustment, and Mental Ability, with Illustrative Cases*. Behavior Research Fund Monographs. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934. Pp. xxvi+340. \$3.50.
- Radio and Education*. Proceedings of the Third Annual Assembly of National Advisory Council on Radio in Education, Inc., 1933. Edited by Levering Tyson. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. viii+204. \$2.50.
- WEST, PARL. *A Study of Ability Grouping in the Elementary School: In Terms of Variability of Achievement, the Teaching Problem, and Pupil Adjustment*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 588. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. Pp. vi+70.



## BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- CASTILLO, CARLOS, and SPARKMAN, COLLEY F. *España en América: Segundas lecturas*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xii+104. \$1.10.
- FOWLKES, JOHN GUY, and YOUNG, CHARLES E. *Instructional Tests in French: For Students in First Year French in High Schools, Colleges, and Universities*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1933. Pp. 120+xvi. \$0.68.
- Fundamentals in Oral and Written Expression: An Integrated Course of Study Prepared by a Committee of Teachers*. Seattle, Washington: Seattle Public Schools, 1933. Pp. x+146.
- HAMM, WILLIAM A., and DURFEE, MADELEINE K. *A Student's Guide to American History*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1933. Pp. 156. \$0.48.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION  
AND OTHER MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

- CAMPBELL, DOAK S. *Problems in the Education of College Women: A Study of Women Graduates of Southern Colleges*. Field Study No. 6. Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1933. Pp. viii+80.
- Fourteenth Annual Report of the Director of the Institute of International Education*. Fourteenth Series, Bulletin No. 4. New York: Institute of International Education (2 West 45th Street), 1933. Pp. 72.
- HAMILTON, D. W. *A Workbook in Educational Psychology*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1933. Pp. 136. \$1.00.
- KANDEL, I. L. *The Outlook in Education*. One of the Joseph Payne Lectures for 1932-33 Delivered in the University of London Institute of Education. New York: Oxford University Press, 1933. Pp. 18. \$0.45.
- KAWIN, ETHEL. *Problems of Preschool Age: Nine Case Studies*. A Preprint of Part I from "Children of Preschool Age." Behavior Research Fund Monographs. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xiv+96. \$1.00.
- MAPES, CHARLOTTE, and HARAP, HENRY. "Six Activity Units in Fractions." Bulletin of Curriculum Laboratory, No. 33. Cleveland, Ohio: School of Education, Western Reserve University, 1933. Pp. 19 (mimeographed).
- Recent issues of the Office of Education:
- Bulletin No. 17, 1932. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 5—*The Reorganization of Secondary Education* by Francis T. Spaulding, O. I. Frederick, and Leonard V. Koos. Pp. xii+424.
- Bulletin No. 17, 1932. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 6—*The Smaller Secondary Schools* by Emery N. Ferriss, W. H. Gaumnitz, and P. Roy Brammell. Pp. viii+236.
- Bulletin No. 17, 1932. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 13—*Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion* by Roy O. Billett. Pp. xii+472.
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- Bulletin No. 13, 1933—*High-School Instruction by Mail: A Potential Economy*, by Walter H. Gaumnitz. Pp. vi+70.
- Bulletin No. 1, 1934—*Educational Directory, 1934: Part IV, Educational Associations and Boards and Foundations*.
- Pamphlet No. 37 (1933)—*Religious Education Bibliography* (January–December 1932).
- Preliminary Report—"Land-Grant Colleges and Universities for the Year Ended June 30, 1933" (mimeographed) by Walter J. Greenleaf.
- Report of the Kentucky Educational Commission*. Educational Bulletin, Vol. I, No. 8. Frankfort, Kentucky: State Department of Education, 1933. Pp. xxviii+324.
- SWIFT, FLETCHER HARPER. *The Financing of Institutions of Public Instruction in France*. European Policies of Financing Public Educational Institutions, Vol. I. University of California Publications in Education, Vol. VIII, No. 1. Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1933. Pp. xvi+180.

## MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

- BLUMER, HERBERT. *Movies and Conduct*. Payne Fund Studies of Motion Pictures and Youth. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. Pp. xiv+258. \$1.50.
- BLUMER, HERBERT, and HAUSER, PHILIP M. *Movies, Delinquency, and Crime*. Payne Fund Studies of Motion Pictures and Youth. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. Pp. xiv+234. \$1.50.
- PETERSON, RUTH C., and THURSTONE, L. L. *Motion Pictures and the Social Attitudes of Children*, pp. xviii+76. Combined with SHUTTLEWORTH, FRANK K., and MAY, MARK A. *The Social Conduct and Attitudes of Movie Fans*, pp. vi+142. Payne Fund Studies of Motion Pictures and Youth. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. \$1.50.

